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Ibeath's Modern Language Series

AN OUTLINE

OF THE

PHONOLOGY AND MORPHOLOGY

OF

OLD PROVENÇAL

BY

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BOSTON, U. S. A. D. C. HEATH & CO., PUBLISHERS 1905

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D H BRARR D.

PREFACE.

THIS book, which is intended as a guide to students of Romance Philology, represents the result of desultory labors extending through a period of twenty years. My first introduction to the scientific pursuit of Provençal linguistics was a course given by Paul Meyer at the École des Chartes in the winter of 1884-85. Since then I have been collecting material both from my own examination of texts and from the works of those philologists who have dealt with the subject. Besides the large Grammars of the Romance Languages by Diez and by Meyer-Lübke, I have utilized H. Suchier's Die französische und provenzalische Sprache (in Gröber's Grundriss der romanischen Philologie, I, 561), the Introduzione grammaticale in V. Crescini's Manualetto provenzale, the Abriss der Formenlehre in C. Appel's Provenzalische Chrestomathie, and many special treatises to which reference will be made in the appropriate places. Conscious of many imperfections in my work, I shall be grateful for corrections.

I have confined myself to the old literary language, believing that to be of the greatest importance to a student of Romance Philology or of Comparative Literature, and fearing lest an enumeration of modern forms, in addition to the ancient, might prove too bewildering. I should add that neither my own knowledge nor the material at my disposal is adequate to a satisfactory presentation of the living idioms

PREFACE.

of southern France. These dialects have, however, been investigated for the light they throw on the geographical distribution of phonetic variations; my chief source of information has been F. Mistral's monumental *Dictionnaire provençal-français*. Catalan and Franco-Provençal have been considered only incidentally. I have not dealt with wordformation, because one of my students is preparing a treatise on that subject.

Readers desiring a brief description of Provencal literature are referred to H. Suchier and A. Birch-Hirschfeld. Geschichte der französischen Literatur, pp. 56-96; A. Stimming, in Gröber's Grundriss der romanischen Philologie, II, ii, pp. 1-60: and A. Restori, Letteratura provenzale. For a more extended account of the poets they should consult Die Poesie der Troubadours and the Leben und Werke der Troubadours by F. Diez; and The Troubadours at Home by J. H. Smith. The poetic ideals are discussed by G. Paris in Romania, XII. pp. 516-34; and with great fulness by L. F. Mott in The System of Courtly Love. The beginnings of the literature are treated by A. Jeanroy in his Origines de la poésie lyrique en France au moyen âge, reviewed by G. Paris in a series of important articles in the Journal des Savants (November and December, 1891, and March and July, 1892) reprinted separately in 1892 under the same title as Jeanroy's book. Contributions by A. Restori to several volumes of the Rivista musicale italiana deal with Provençal music; some tunes in modern notation are to be found in J. H. Smith's Troubadours at Home, and in the Archiv für das Studium der neueren Sprachen, CX (New Series X), 110 (E. Bohn). Aside from the editions of individual poets, the best collections of verses are those of C. Appel, Provenzalische Chrestomathie; V. Crescini, Manualetto provenzale; and K. Bartsch, Chrestomathie provençale. Earlier and larger anthologies are M. Raynouard's Choix des poésies originales des troubadours, and C. A. F. Mahn's Werke der Troubadours and Gedichte der Troubadours. The only dictionary of importance for the old language is the Lexique roman (six volumes) of M. Raynouard, augmented by the Supplement-Wörterbuch of E. Levy (now appearing in instalments). The poetic language of the present day can be studied to advantage in E. Koschwitz's Grammaire historique de la langue des Félibres.

C. H. GRANDGENT.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., NOVEMBER, 1904.

ABBREVIATIONS AND TECHNICAL TERMS.

Abl.: ablative. Acc. : accusative. Cl.L.: Classic Latin. Cond.: conditional. Cons.: consonant. Einf .: W. Meyer-Lübke, Einführung in das Studium der romanischen Sprachwissenschaft, 1901. F.: feminine. Fr.: French. Free (of vowels): not in position. Fut.: future. Gram .: W. Meyer-Lübke, Grammaire des langues romanes, 3 vols., 1890-1900. Grundriss: G. Gröber, Grundriss der romanischen Philologie, 2 vols., 1888-1902. Imp.: imperfect. Imper.: imperative. Intertonic (of vowels): following the secondary and preceding the primary accent. Intervocalic (of consonants): standing between two vowels. It.: Italian. Körting: G. Körting, Lateinischromanisches Wörterbuch, 2d ed., 1901. Lat .: Latin. Levy: E. Levy, Provenzalisches Supplement-Wörterbuch, 1894-.

Ltblt.: Literaturblatt für germanische und romanische Philologie, monthly, Leipzig.

M.: masculine.

Nom.: nominative.

Obj.: objective (case).

Part.: participle.

Perf.: perfect.

Pers.: person.

Phon.: P. Marchot, Petite phonétique du français prélittéraire, 1901.

Pl.: plural.

Pr.: Provençal.

Pres.: present.

Pret.: preterit.

Raynouard: M. Raynouard, Lexique roman, 6 vols., 1836-44.

Rom.: Romania, quarterly, Paris.

Sg.: singular.

V.L.: Vulgar Latin.

Voc.: H. Schuchardt, Vocalismus des Vulgärlateins, 3 vols., 1866-68.

Voiced (of consonants): sonant, pronounced with vibration of the glottis.

Voiceless (of consonants): surd, pronounced without glottal vibration.

Vow.: vowel.

Zs.: Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie, 4 to 6 nos. a year, Halle.

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SIGNS AND PHONETIC SYMBOLS.

N. B. — Phonetic characters not entered in this list are to be pronounced as in Italian. Whenever it is essential to distinguish spelling from pronunciation, *italic* type is used for the former, Roman for the latter.

- (under a vowel): close quality.
- ¿ (under a vowel): open quality.
- (over a vowel): long quantity.
- " (over a vowel): short quantity.
- (under a letter): semivowel, not syllabic.
- (over a letter): stress.
- a: French à in pâte.
- a: French a in patte.
- β : bilabial v, as in Spanish.
- c: see k.
 - c': palatal k, as in English key.
 - ð: English th in this.
 - e: French é in thé.
 - e: French ê in fête.
 - g: English g in go.
 - g': palatal g, as in English geese.
 - h: English h in hat.
 - i: French i in si.
 - i: English i in pit.
 - k: English k in maker.
- k': see c'.
- l': palatal l, as in Italian figlio.

- / (after a consonant): palatal pronunciation. [found.
- * (before a word): conjectural, not
- > (between words or letters): derivation, the *source* standing at the *open* end.
- +: followed by.
- n': palatal n, as in Italian ogni.
- n: English ng in sing.
- o: German ō, as in sohn.
- o: German ő, as in sonne.
- r': palatal r.
- š: English sh in ship.
- p: English th in thin.
- u: German \bar{u} , as in gut.
- u: German *i*, as in butter.
- ü: French u in pur.
- w: English w in woo.
- χ : German *ch* in *ach*.
- y: English y in ye.
- z: English z in crazy.
- ž: French j in jour.

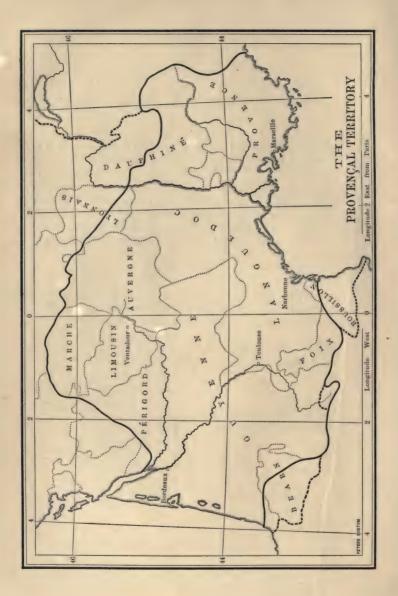


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AN OUTLINE OF THE PHONOLOGY AND MOR-PHOLOGY OF OLD PROVENÇAL.

I. INTRODUCTION.

1. The language here studied is, in the main, that used by the poets of Southern France during the 12th and 13th centuries. The few works that we have earlier than the 12th century must, of course, be utilized for such information as they afford concerning the process of linguistic change; and lacking words or forms must occasionally be sought in writings later than the 13th. Prose literature, moreover, should not be neglected, as it greatly enlarges our vocabulary and throws much light on local divergences. The modern dialects need be cited only to determine the geographical distribution of variations.

2. The extent of the Provençal territory is sufficiently indicated by the map on p. viii. The upper black line separates Provençal on the northwest and north from French, on the northeast from Franco-Provençal; on the east are the Gallo-Italic dialects. The lower black line divides Provençal on the southwest from Basque, on the south from Spanish, on the southeast from Catalan. The boundary line between French and Provençal must be determined somewhat arbitrarily, as there is no distinct natural division; the several linguistic characteristics of each idiom do not end at the

same point, and thus one language gradually shades into the other. The line shown on the map is based on the development of free accented Latin a, which remains a in Provençal, but is changed to e in French. The limits of other phonetic phenomena may be found in Suchier's maps at the back of Vol. I of Gröber's *Grundriss*. There may be seen also a large map showing the place of Provençal among the Romance languages. Consult, furthermore, P. Meyer in *Romania*, XXIV, 529.

3. The Spanish and Gallo-Italic frontiers are more clearly defined, and Basque is entirely distinct. Franco-Provençal and Catalan, on the other hand, are closely related to Provençal and not always easy to divide from it. Catalan, in fact, is often classed as a Provençal dialect; but it is sufficiently different to be studied separately. Franco-Provençal, rated by some philologists as an independent language, has certain characteristics of Provençal and certain features of French, but more of the latter; in some respects it is at variance with both. The Gascon, or southwest, dialects of Provençal differ in many ways from any of the others and present not a few similarities to Spanish¹; they will, however, be included in our study.

4. The Provençal domain embraces, then, the following old provinces: Provence, Languedoc, Foix, part of Béarn, Gascony, Guyenne, Limousin, most of Marche, Auvergne, the southwestern half of Lyonnais and the southern half of Dauphiné. The native speech in this region varies considerably from place to place, and the local dialects are, for convenience, roughly grouped under the names of the provinces; it should be remembered, however, that the political

¹See E. Bourciez, les Mots espagnols comparés aux mots gascons.

and the linguistic boundaries rarely coincide. For some of the principal dialect differences, see §§ 8 and 10-13.

5. The old poets frequently called their language *lemosi*; and, in fact, the foundation of their literary idiom is the speech of the province of Limousin and the adjacent territory on the north, west, and southwest.¹ The supremacy of this dialect group is apparently due to the fact that it was generally used for composition earlier than any of the others: popular song, in all probability, had its home in the borderland of Marche²; religious literature in the vulgar tongue developed in the monasteries of this region; the artistic lyric was cultivated, we know, at the court of Ventadour, and it must have found favor at others. Furthermore, many of the leading troubadours belonged by birth or residence to the Limousin district.

6. The troubadours' verses, as we have them, seldom represent any one dialect in its purity. The poet himself was doubtless influenced both by literary tradition and by his particular local usage, as well as by considerations of rhyme and metre. Moreover, his work, before reaching us, passed through the hands of various intermediaries, who left upon it traces of their own pronunciation. It should be said, also, that the Limousin was not a single dialect, but a group of more or less divergent types of speech. For these reasons we must not expect to find in Provençal a uniform linguistic standard.

7. Neither was there a generally accepted system of crthography. When the vulgar tongue was first written, the

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¹See C. Chabaneau, la Langue et la littérature du Limousin, in the Revue des langues romanes, XXXV, 379.

³ See G. Paris, Origines de la poésie lyrique en France au moyen âge.

Roman letters were used with approximately the same values that they had in Latin, as it was then pronounced. As the Provencal sounds changed, there was a conflict between the spellings first established and new notations based on contemporary speech. Furthermore, many Provençal vowels and consonants had no equivalents in Latin; for these we find a great variety of representations. The signs are very often ambiguous: for instance, c before e or i (as in cen, cinc) generally stands in the first texts for ts, in the more recent ones for s, the pronunciation having changed; z between vowels in early times usually means dz (plazer), but later z (roza); i between vowels (maior) indicates either y or dž (English j), according to the dialect; a g may signify "hard" g (gerra), dž ("soft" g: ges), or tš (English ch: mieg). It is probable that for a couple of centuries diphthongs were oftenest written as simple vowels.

8. Some features of the mediæval pronunciation are still obscure. The close o was transformed, either during or soon after the literary epoch, into u (the sound of French ou); hence, when we meet in a late text such a word as flor, we cannot be certain whether it is to be sounded flor or flur. We do not know at what time Latin ū in southern France took the sound \ddot{u} (French u): some suppose that it was during or shortly before the literary period; if this be true, the letter u (as in tu, mur) may represent in some texts u, in others ü. In diphthongs and triphthongs whose first element is written u (cuer, fuolha, nueu, buou), this letter came to be pronounced in most of the dialects like French u in huit, while in others it retained the sound of French ou in oui; we cannot tell exactly when or where, in ancient times, this development occurred. In the diphthongs ue, uo (luec, fuoc), opinions disagree as to which vowel originally bore the

stress; subsequent changes seem to indicate that in the 12th and 13th centuries the practice varied in the different dialects. Old Provençal must have had in some words a peculiar type of r, which was sufficiently palatal in its articulation to call for an i-glide before it (*esclairar*); we do not know precisely how it was formed; in most regions it probably was assimilated to the more usual r as early as the 12th century. The s and \check{z} (palatal s and z) apparently ranged, in the several dialects, between the sounds of French *ch* and *j* on the one hand, and those of German *ch* (in *ich*) and *j* (in *ja*) on the other; the former types were largely assimilated, doubtless by the 13th century, to s and z (*pois, maisó*), the latter were not (*poih, maió*).

9. The following table comprises the Old Provençal sounds with their usual spellings, the latter being arranged, as nearly as may be, in the order of their frequency. Diphthongs and triphthongs are included in the vowel list, compound consonants in the consonant table. For an explanation of the phonetic symbols, see p. vii. The variant pronunciations are discussed in § 8.

SOUND.	SPELLINGS.	EXAMPLES.
, a .	a	pan
ą –	a	car
ai	ai, ay	paire, cays
au	au	autre
ė	е	pena
ę	e	cel
ei	ei, ey	vei, veyre
ęi	ei, ey	seis, teysser
ęu	ен	beure
ęu	e14	breu
į	i, y	amic, ydola

VOWELS.

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5

SOUND.	SPELLINGS.	EXAMPLES.
ię	ie, e	quier, velh
ięi	iei, iey, ei	ieis, lieys, leit
ięu	ieu, eu	mieu, deus
iu	iu	estiu
o (or u)	0, U	corre, sun
ô	Ø	cors
ọi	oi, oy	conoisser, oyre
<i>q</i> i	oi, oy	pois, poyssán
ọu	011	dous
<i>o</i> u	011	mou
ų: see ọ, ü		
ü (or ụ?)	24	mut
uę, üę	ue, 0?	cuec, olh?
uęi, üęi	uei, uey, oi?	cueissa, pueyssas, oit?
uęu, üęu	ueu, ou?	nueu, bou?
üi	ui, uy	cuit, duy
uọ, üọ	210, 0	gruoc, folha
uọi, üọi	uoi, oi	puoi, noit
uou, üou	иои, ои	pluou, ou

CONSONANTS.

S	SOUND.	SPELLINGS.	EXAMPLES.
b	ь,	. 88	bel, abbat
d	d		don
dz	z,	с	plazer, dicén
dž	ż,	g, tg, gg, ti, tgi, ih	ioc, gen, paratge, viagge, coratie, lotgiar,
			puihar
ð	d		veder
f	f_{2}	ph	fer, phizica
g	8,	gu	gras, guan, guerra
h (0	Gascon) h	,f? ·	ham, fe?1
k	с,	qu, k, g	cais, quar, quer, ki, longs ²
1	l,	11	leu, belleza

 1 This h (coming from f) is peculiar to Gascon; the other dialects have no h.

 2 G, b, d are sounded k, p, t only at the end of a word or before a final s.

[§ 9]

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	SOUND.	SPELLINGS.	EXAMPLES.
ľ		lh, ill, ilh, ll, l, il, yl, yll, li	fuelha, meillor, failha, vellar, viel, voil, fiyl, fayllentia, filia
m		ni, mm	mes, commanda
n		n, nn	nas, annat
n'		nh, gn, inh, ign, ing, innh, ingn, ngn, nn, n, in, ng, ynh, ni, ny, nyh	cenher, plagner, poinh, seignor, soing, poinnher, fraingner, ongnimen, vinna, franén, soin, sengor, poynh, lenia, senyoria, senyhor
ŋ		n	lonc
р		p, pp, b	prop, apparer, obs1
r		r	rire
r'		r	cuer
rr		**	terra ²
s		s, ss, c, f, x	sap, fassa, cenat, ça, locx
š		ss, s, sh, h, hs	faissa, cais, pueysh, Foih, faihs
t		<i>t</i> , <i>tt</i> , <i>d</i>	tot, attenir, nud ¹
ts		c, z, tz, ç, gz, cz, ti	cel, faz, parlatz, ço, fagz, czo, fayllen- tia ⁸
tš		ch, g, ich, ig, h, gz	chan, plag, ueich, faig, lah, gaugz4
v		u (printed v)	ven
у		<i>i</i> , <i>y</i>	gabia, preyar
z		s, z, ç	pausa, roza, riçia (< ridēbat)
ž		s, z, i	raso, poizo, maio

10. The Gascon group presents certain striking divergences from the other dialects: (1) it shows a b corresponding to Provençal v, as in be = ve < venit, abetz = avetz < habetis; (2) it substitutes r for l between vowels, as in bera =bela < bella; (3) it changes initial f to h, as in he = fe <fidem. Other Gascon peculiarities are less ancient, less general, or less important.

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¹ G, b, d are sounded k, p, t only at the end of a word or before a final s.

² Rr is generally distinguished from r, but there are a few examples of their confusion in rhyme.

³ Ts is usually written c at the beginning of a word, z or tz at the end.

⁴ G has the sound of ts only at the end of a word or combined with final z.

II. Some distinctions may be pointed out between the speech of the north and that of the south:—

(1) Latin ca and ga, either at the beginning of a word or after a consonant, became respectively tša and dža in the northern dialects¹, and remained unchanged in the southern: $canto > chan \ can, \ longa > lonia \ longa$.

(2) Latin ct and gd became it and id in most of the north and in the southwest¹, tš and dž in most of the south and in the northwest²: factum > fait fach, frig(i)da > freida freia. Nct became int, nt, n', ntš in different regions: sanctum > saint sant sanh sanch. Cs (Latin x) had various local developments—is, itš, tš—somewhat similar to those of ct: exire > eissir eichir ichir.

(3) Latin d between vowels disappeared in some spots in the north and northeast¹, and became z nearly everywhere else: $aud\bar{i}re > auir auzir$.

(4) Latin ll became l' in some parts of the south², and usually l in other regions: $b\check{e}lla > belha bela$.

(5) Provençal final ns remains in the southeast and east, and is elsewhere generally reduced to s: $b \delta nus > b \delta ns$. Provençal final n also falls in a large region, but its history is more intricate; the poets use indifferently forms with and without n: $b \delta ne > b en b e$.

12. Several Latin consonants, when combined with a following e or i, give results that are widely different in various localities, but the geographical distribution of the respective forms is complicated and not always clear: $p \delta dium > puech$ poi; basiare > baisar basar baiiar baiar; bassiare > baissar baichar bachar; potionem > poizon pozon poio. The same thing

¹Cf. French.

² Cf. Spanish.

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may be said of intervocalic y (Latin j): major>mager maier. Also of intervocalic c, sc, g, ng, followed by e or i: placēre> plazer plaizer plager, nascere>naisser nasser naicher nacher, lēgem>lei leg, ŭngere>onher onger.

13. In the development of unstressed vowels there are very numerous local variations, which will be discussed later. Even among accented vowels there are some divergences:—

(1) Provençal a, e, o before nasals become a, e, o in some dialects, especially in those belonging to or bordering on the Limousin group: *canem* > can can, *věnit* > ven ven, *bŏnum* > bon bon. The poets nearly always use the forms with close vowels.

(2) The breaking of e, o, under certain conditions, into diphthongs is not common to the whole territory, and the resulting forms show local differences: $m \check{e} um > m e u$ mieu, $f \check{o} c um > f o c$ fuec fuec füc. Breaking is least common in the southwest.

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II. PHONOLOGY.

14. Inasmuch as Provençal, like the other Romance languages, grew out of the Latin commonly spoken under the Roman Empire, we must take this latter language as our starting-point. The transformation was so gradual and continuous that we cannot assign any date at which speech ceases to be Latin and begins to be Provencal; since, however, the various Latin dialects-destined to become later the various Romance languages-began to diverge widely in the 6th and 7th centuries, we may, for the sake of convenience, say that the Latin period ends at about this time. Before this, certain changes (which affected all the Romance tongues) had occurred in the popular language, differentiating it considerably from the classic Latin of the Augustan writers. Although the most important of these alterations have to do with inflections rather than with pronunciation, the sound-changes in Vulgar Latin are by no means insignificant.

15. It is essential at the outset to distinguish "popular" from "learned" words. The former, having always been a part of the spoken vocabulary, have been subject to the operation of all the phonetic laws that have governed the development of the language. The latter class, consisting of words borrowed by clerks, at various periods, from Latin books and from the Latin of the Church, is naturally exempt from sound-changes that occurred in the vulgar tongue before

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the time of their adoption. The form of learned words depends, in the first place, on the clerical pronunciation of Latin at the date of their borrowing; then, if they came into general use, their form was subject to the influence of any phonetic laws that were subsequently in force. The fate of borrowed terms differs, therefore, according to the time of their introduction and the degree of popularity which they afterwards attained.

I. ACCENT.

16. The place of the *primary* accent, which in Classic Latin was determined by quantity, remained unchanged in Vulgar Latin even after quantitative distinctions were lost. A short vowel before a mute followed by a liquid may, in Classic Latin, be stressed or unstressed; in Vulgar Latin it is usually stressed: *cathédra*, *tenébra*.¹

There are some exceptions to the rule of the persistence of the accent in Vulgar Latin:—

I. An accented e or i immediately followed by the vowel of the penult transfers the stress to this latter vowel, and is itself changed to y: $fill\delta lus > fill\delta lus > multerem > mulyere$. This shift is perhaps due to a tendency to stress the more sonorous of two contiguous vowels.

2. An accented u immediately followed by the vowel of the penult transfers the stress to the *preceding* syllable, and is itself changed to w: $hab u \dot{e} rank > \dot{a} bw erunt$, $ten u \dot{e} rank > t \dot{e} n w era$. This shift cannot be explained on the same principle as the foregoing one; it is perhaps due in every case to analogy $-h \dot{a} buit$, $t \dot{e} n u \dot{i}$, for instance, being responsible for the change in hab u erunt, ten u erunt.

3. Verbs compounded with a prefix, if their constituent parts were fully recognized, were usually replaced in Vulgar Latin by a formation in which the vowel and the accent of the simple verb were preserved: déficit> disfácit, réddĭdi > reddédi, rénĕgo > renégo, réquĭrit > requærit. In

¹ For some exceptions see Rom., XXXII, 591; P. Marchot, Phon., p. 9.

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 $r\acute{e}\acute{c}\acute{p}it > rec\acute{p}it$ the accent but not the vowel was restored, speakers having ceased to associate this verb with *capio*. In *cólligo*, érigo, éxio, ínflo the composite nature of the word was apparently not recognized.

4. The adverbs illac, illac, illac accented their last syllable, by the analogy of hac, hic.

17. In Provençal the primary accent falls on the same syllable as in Vulgar Latin: $bonit\bar{a}tem > V$. L. $bonit\dot{a}te > Pr$. $bont\dot{a}t$, $comp\check{u}tum > V$. L. computu > Pr. conte; $cath\check{c}dra > V$. L. $cat\acute{e}dra > Pr$. $cad\acute{e}ira$; filiolus > V. L. filyolus > Pr. filhols, $tenu\check{c}ram > V$. L. $t\acute{e}nwera > Pr$. $t\acute{e}ngra$, requirit > V. L. requarit > Pr. requér, illac > V. L. $ill\acute{a}c > Pr$. lai.

1. Some learned words have an irregular accentuation, apparently due to a mispronunciation of the Latin: cándidum > quandi, grammática > gramatica, láchrýmo > lagrím, spíritum > esprit (perhaps from the formula spiritui sancto). Others were adopted with the correct stress, but shifted it later: fábrica > fábrega > fabréga (and fárga), fémina > fémena > feména (and fémna), láchrýma > lágrema > lagréma, séminat > sémena > seména (and sémna), vírginem > vérgena > vergína (and vérge).

 Dimércres < die Mercüri has evidently been influenced by divénres < die Vënëris.

3. Some irregularities due to inflection will be discussed under Morphology.

18. The secondary accent, in Vulgar Latin, seems not to have followed the Classic Latin quantitative rule, but to have fallen regularly on the second syllable from the primary stress: cogito, cupiditatem. If this secondary accent followed the tonic, its vowel probably developed as an unstressed post-tonic vowel; if it preceded, its vowel was apparently treated as a stressed vowel. This treatment was doubtless continued in Provençal until the intertonic vowel dropped out: cogito cogitant > cug cuian (cf. canto cantant > can cantan), cupiditatem > cupiditate > cubiditat > cobeitat. As may be seen from this last example, after the fall of the intertonic vowel, the secondary stress, being brought next to the primary, disappeared, and its vowel was henceforth unaccented. Cf. § 45, 1.

19. Short, unemphatic words had no accent in Vulgar Latin, and were attached as particles to the beginning or the end of another word: te videt, áma me. Such words, if they were not monosyllabic, tended to become so; a dissyllabic proclitic beginning with a vowel regularly, in Vulgar Latin, lost its first syllable: *illum video* > V. L. *lu véyo* > Pr. *lo vei*. A word which was used sometimes independently, sometimes as a particle, naturally developed double forms.

2. VOWELS.

QUANTITY.

20. Latin had the following vowels, which might be long or short: a, e, i, o, u. The diphthongs, æ, œ, au, eu, ui, were always long: æ and œ, however, were simplified into monophthongs, mainly in the Republican epoch, æ being sounded ē, æ probably ē; au retained (save in some popular dialects) its old pronunciation; eu did not occur in any word that survived; ui, in *cui*, *illui*, in Vulgar Latin, was accented *úi* (as in *fui*). The simple vowels, except a, were, doubtless from early times, slightly different in quality according to their quantity, the long vowels being sounded close, the short open: ē, I, ō, \overline{u} ; ě, J, ŏ, \underline{u} .

21. Between the 1st and the 7th century of our era, the Classic Latin quantity died out: it had apparently disappeared from unstressed vowels as early as the 4th century, from stressed by the 6th. It left its traces, however, as we have seen, upon accentuation (§ 16), and also upon vowel quality, the originally long and short remaining differentiated in sound, if they were accented. Of the unaccented vowels, only i shows sure signs of such a differentiation, and even for i the distinction is evident only in a final syllable: *vēnī vēnīt* > veni venit.

ACCENTED VOWELS.

22. The vowels of Vulgar Latin are a, e, e, i, i, o, o, u, u, with the diphthongs au and ui; the old æ and æ had become identical in sound with e and e. As early as the 3d century of our era, i was changed, in nearly all the Empire, to e, and thus became identical with the vowel coming from original ē. A little later, perhaps, u, in the greater part of the Empire, became o, thus coinciding with the vowel that was originally \overline{o} . Ypsilon, in words taken from the Greek, was identified, in early borrowings, with Latin u; in later ones, with Latin i: $\beta \omega \rho \sigma a > Pr. \ borsa, \gamma \partial \rho o s > Pr. \ girs.$ Omicron, which apparently had the close sound in Greek, generally (but not always) retained it in recently borrowed words in Vulgar Latin: $\tau \delta \rho \rho o s$ > tornus (cf. Pr. torn), but $\kappa \delta \lambda a \phi o s > c \delta l \check{a} \rho h us = colapus or$ colapus (cf. Pr. colp).

The development of the Vulgar Latin vowels in Provençal will now be examined in detail:---

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23. Cl. L. \bar{a} , $\bar{a} > V$. L. a > Pr. a: arborem > arbre, gratum > grat, mare > mar.

I. The ending *-arius* shows an irregular development in French and Provençal, the Provençal forms being mainly such as would come from *-ěrius*; as in *parlier*, *parleira*. In the earliest stage we find apparently *-ęr'* and *-ęr'a*; then *-ęr'* and *-ęir'a*; next *-ęr*, *-ięr* and *-ęira*, *-ięira*; finally, with a reciprocal influence of the two genders, *-ęr*, *-ięr*, *-ęr*, *and -ęra*, *-ięra*, *-ęira*, *-ięira*: *caballarium* > c(h)avaler *-ier*, *-eir*, **man(u)aria*

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>manera -iera -eira -ieira. The peculiar treatment of this suffix has not been satisfactorily explained. See E. R. Zimmermann, Die Geschichte des lateinischen Suffixes -arius in den romanischen Sprachen, 1895; E. Staaff, Le suffixe -arius dans les langues romanes, Upsala, 1896, reviewed by Marchot in Zs., XXI, 296, by Körting in Zeitschrift für französische Sprache, XXII, 55; Meyer-Lübke, Gram., I, 222, § 237; Zimmermann in Zs., XXVI, 591; Thomas in Rom., XXXI, 481. The most promising theory is that of Thomas: that -arius was associated with the Germanic ending -ari and participated in the umlaut which affected the latter; cf. also P. Marchot, Phon., pp. 34-36.

2. In Gascony and Languedoc ei is used for ai < habeo. The ei perhaps developed first as a future ending (amar -ei) by analogy of the preterit ending -ei (amei): see Morphology, §§ 152, I, 162, (4), 175, (4), where this latter ending is discussed also. For a different explanation, see Meyer-Lübke, *Gram.*, I, 222, § 237.

3. A few apparent irregularies are to be traced to the vocabulary of Vulgar Latin. For instance, Pr. sereisa represents, not Cl. L. cěrčsus, but V. L. cěrčsča: see Meyer-Lübke, Einf., § 103. Uebre is from $*\delta p$ ěrit, or apěrit modified by $*c\delta p$ ěrit $= c\bar{o}perit$. Voig is from $*v\delta c$ tum = vacuum: Einf., § 114.

4. Such forms as fontaina = fontana < fontāna, etc., and tres = tras < trans, etc., are French or belong to the borderland between French and Provençal.

 $\sqrt{24}$. In some dialects, particularly in Rouergue, Limousin, Auvergne, and Dauphiné, a became a before a nasal, and at the end of a monosyllable or an oxytone: *canem* > can, grandem > grant, *cadit* > ca, *stat* > esta.

I. The conditions differ somewhat in the various dialects, according as the nasal consonant falls or remains, and is followed by another consonant or not. In Limousin the sound is a before an n that cannot fall: see § 11, (5). In Rouergue and in Dauphiné, a appears before all nasals. The poets generally follow the Limousin usage. See F. Pfützner, Ueber die Aussprache des provenzalischen A, Halle, 1884.

25. Cl. L. ē, ĭ, œ>V. L. e>Pr. e: habēre>aver, mē>me,

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mensem > mes, plēnum > plen, rēgem > rei, vēnděre > vendre; inter > entre, fidem > fe, malitia > maleza, minus > mens, mittěre > metre, siccum > sec, viridem > vert; pæna > pena.

1. Some words have e instead of e:-

(a) The ending $-\tilde{e}tis$ in the present indicative becomes -etz through the analogy of $etz < \tilde{e}stis$.

(b) Camel (also e), candela (also e), cruzel, fizel (also e), maissela have e through the analogy of the suffix -el < -ellus. In *camel* the substitution probably goes back to Vulgar Latin.

(c) Many learned words, including proper names, have e for e: decret, Elizabet, Moyses, pantera, requies, secret (e), sencer.

(d) Esper for esper < spero, quet for quet $< qu(i)\bar{e}tum$ are perhaps bad rhymes. Bartolomeo Zorzi, a Venetian, rhymes –es with –es; in Catalan these two endings were not distinguished.

(c) Individual cases: ades, 'at once,' probably from ad id ipsum, seems to have been affected by pres and apres < ad pressum; mostier < monasterium shows the influence of ministerium; ner nier (also ner negre) < nigrum perhaps shows the influence of enter entier and the numerous adjectives in -er -ier; neu nieu ney < nivem has been attracted by breu greu, leu; seze $< s\bar{c}d\bar{c}cim$ follows seis $< s\bar{c}x$; senestre (cf. late Lat. sinexter) is evidently influenced by destre.

2. Many words have i instead of e:-

(a) Berbitz = vervēcem, camisa = camīsia, dit = digitum come from alternative V. L. forms, berbīcem, *camīsia, *dīgitum.

(b) In many learned words Latin $\check{}$ is represented by i in Provençal: albir, martire, edifici, iuzizi, servizi, vici, etc.; iusticia, leticia, tristicia, etc.; planissa, sebissa, etc. Aurilha (also e) < auricula, cilh (also cieilh, sobreselhs) < cilium, issilh < exilium, familha < familia, maistre (also maestre maiestre) < magistrum, meravilha (also e) < mirabilia, perilh < periculum, etc., are probably learned forms. Máistre and mestre are French.

(c) Ciri (cere) = cēreum, iure (cf. ebriac) = ēbrium (ot *čbrium), marquis (e), merci (e), país (e) = *pagēnsem, plazir (e), pris (e), etc., are French. For a discussion of *iure* and a different explanation of *ciri*, see P. Savj-Lopez, Dell' "Umlaut" provenzale, 1902, p. 4.

(d) Ins (also entz) < intus, dins (also dens) < de intus, dintre (cf. en, entre) < de inter have not been satisfactorily explained. Regular forms with e are found in Béarn, Gascony, Dauphiné, and the Alps. (e) Individual cases: $tapit < \tau a \pi \eta \tau \omega \nu$ shows the modern pronunciation of Greek η ; verin = venënum is an example of substitution of suffix.

3. Arnei, fei, mei = me, palafrei, perquei, sei = se are French or borderland forms. Mercey, rey = re, used by Marcabru, seem to be due either to an imitation of such forms as the preceding or to the analogy of crei cre < crēdo. Cf. § 65, N, 3.

4. Contránher seems to be a fusion of constringere and contrahere; vendanha < vindēmia shows French influence.

26. An e in hiatus became i: ligat > lia, *siam > sia, via > via.

27. When there was in the next syllable a final \bar{i} , V. L. e was changed in Provençal to i: $ecc^{i} ll\bar{i} > cilh$, $ecc^{i} st\bar{i} > cist$, $f\bar{e}c\bar{i} > fis$, $*pr\bar{e}s\bar{s} > pris$, $*v\bar{e}nu\bar{s} > vinc$, $vigint\bar{i} *vint\bar{s} > vint$.

I. In the nominative plural of masculine nouns and adjectives this change was regularly prevented by the analogy of the singular and the accusative plural: $miss\bar{s} > mes$, $plen\bar{s} > plen$. We find, however, cabil < capille.

2. Dec for $*dic < d\bar{c}bu\bar{i}$ is probably due to the influence of the weak ending -ec, which owes its e to the -ei -est -et of the first and third conjugations. Venguest for venguist $< *venuist\bar{i}$ is due both to the influence of the plural forms venguem, venguetz and to the analogy of the weak preterits, such as cantest, vendest.

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28. Cl. L. ě, x > V. L. e > Pr. e: *infěrnum* > enfern, *fěrrum* > fer, *pědem* > pe, *trěmůlat* > trembla; *cælum* > cel, *quærit* > quer.

I. Such forms as glisia, lire, pire, pis, profit are French. Profich may be a cross between profieg and profit, or it may be due to the analogy of dich.

2. Cossint, mint, sint, used by Arnaut Daniel, are perhaps faulty rhymes.

3. Auzil < avicëllî, in the Boeci, may be due to the analogy of such plural forms as cabil < capilli, il < illi, etc. Briu, sometimes used for

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breu < brevem, is evidently connected with abrivar, 'hasten,' the origin of which is uncertain. Elig shows the influence either of eligir (beside elegir) or of dig. Ginh = genh < ingénium evidently follows ginhos < ingeniosus and its derivatives. Isme (esme) is a post-verbal noun from *ismar (cf. azismamen), a dialect form of esmar < æstimare. Quis < *quæsi, tinc < těnui are due to the analogy of pris < *prēsī, vinc < *vēnui.

4. Beside nçula < nčbula, we find *nebla*, *neble*, presumably from the same source, and also *nible*, *niól*, *nióla*, *niúl*, *niúla*, *niúl*. According to Nigra, Archivio glottologico italiano, XV, 494, *nūbes* > nūbšlus > *nšbūlus (and *ntbūlus?), whence might be derived *niŭlus *niúlus, which would account for *niól-a*, *niúl-a*, and perhaps for a *nívol > nivól. Nible might be regarded as a cross between neble and niul.

5. In es < ist the e probably comes from such combinations as me's, que's, understood as m'es, qu'es. Espelh < spiculum shows the influence of cosselh, solelh. Estela presupposes a Latin *stela or *stella for stella: cf. the Fr. and It.

6. Plais, 'hedge' seems to be a cross between plexus and paxillus, 'fence.' Vianda (< vivenda?) is probably French.

7. Volon < volentem shows the influence of the ending - *undus*.

8. Greuga < con-gregar has been influenced by greu < *grevem = gravem influenced by levem. Cf. grey < gregem.

29. Before a nasal, in most of the dialects of Limousin, Languedoc, and Gascony, ę became ę: *běne* > bẹn, *dicěntem* > dizẹn, *těmpus* > tẹms, *těnet* > tẹn, *věniam* > vẹnha, *věntum* > vent.

30. Early in the history of Provençal, before u, i, or one of the palatal consonants l', r', s', z', y, tš, dž, an ę broke into ię, except in a few dialects of the west and north: $d\check{e}us >$ dięus, $m\check{e}um >$ mięu; $am\bar{a}vi > *amai >$ amei amięi, $*f\check{e}ria >$ fieira, $*ec(c)l\check{e}sia$? (Cf. Zs., XXV, 344) > glięiza, $l\check{e}ctum >$ lięit, $p\check{e}jus >$ pięis; $v\check{e}t\check{u}lum$ $v\check{e}clum >$ vielh, minist\check{e}rium > mestier, $*ec(c)l\check{e}sia$? > glięza, $m\check{e}dia >$ mięia, $l\check{e}ctum >$ lięg. There seems to be also, at least in some dialects, a tendency to break the e before a g or a k: $l\check{e}gunt >$ liegon; $*s\check{e}quit >$ sec

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siec, subjunctive siegas (sega), but infinitive segre <* sequere.1

The breaking was probably due to a premature lifting of the tongue under the influence of a following high vowel or a palatal (or velar) consonant.² Before u it occurred everywhere except in the extreme west; before palatals the e apparently remained intact both in the extreme west and in Quercy, Rouergue, Auvergne, and Dauphiné. At first, no doubt, the diphthong was less marked than it became in the 12th and 13th centuries. It is not indicated in our oldest text, the *Boeci* (*breu*, *deu*, *eu*, *mei*, *meler*, *vel*)⁸, and it frequently remains unexpressed even in the writings of the literary period.

It is to be noted that e does not break before u < 1 nor before $i < \vartheta$: *běllus* > bels > beus, *pětra* > * peðra > peira, *Pětrum* > * Peðre > Peire, *rětro* > * redre > reire⁴. The breaking must, therefore, have occurred before these developments of 1 and ϑ , both of which apparently antedate the *Boeci*: cf. euz = els, v. 139; eu = el, v. 155; *Teiric* < * *Tedric* < *Theodo rīcum*, v. 44, etc. On the other hand, there is no diphthong before ts, dz, s, z coming from Latin c', cy, pty, tty, ty: *děcem* > detz, *pěttia* (or *pěcia*) > pessa, *něptia* > nessa, * *prětiat* > preza, *prětium* > pretz⁵. The breaking, therefore, took

³ The diphthong of 0 occurs, however, in this text, v. 203, in uel < dculi.

⁴Derrier (derer, dereer), beside dereire, is manifestly due to the influence of primier. To the influence of the same ending *-ier*, as in carr(i)eira, is to be ascribed the diphthong in cad(i)eira < cathèdra.

⁵ The things just said of e are true of e: there is no breaking before u < 1 (tout = tolt) nor before ts, dz, s, z (*nocet* > notz, * *noptias* > nossas).

¹ There is no diphthong in the preterit ending -ec: cazec, etc.

² This view is a modification of the theory developed by C. Voretzsch in his admirable treatise, *Zur Geschichte der Diphthongierung im Altprovenzalischen*, Halle, 1900. That e is not affected by an i in the following syllable is shown by such words as emperi, evangeli, salteri, which must have been adopted fairly early. The same thing is true of of apostoli, oli, etc.

place after these consonants had ceased to be palatal. We may ascribe it with some confidence to the period between the seventh and tenth centuries.

1. A number of cases of iç before r are doubtless to be explained by analogy. $H\breve{e}ri > er$; autre + er > autrer, which, through the influence of adjectives in -er -ier, became autrier: hence the form ier. $F\breve{e}rio$, $m\breve{e}reo$ > fier, mier; hence, by analogy, the first person forms profier, quier, then the third person forms fier, mier, profier, quier, sierf (but servon, serva), and the subjunctives ofieira, sofie(i)ra.

2. Iesc ($= \check{e}xeo$), iescon, iesca receive their diphthong either from earlier forms with s' or from ies $<\check{e}xit$.

31. Cl. L. i>V. L. i: amīcum>amic, fīnem>fin, trīstem >trist.

1. Freg, freit are from V. L. *frigdum = frigidum, the i being perhaps due to the analogy of rigidum.

32. In the 13th century or earlier the group iu, in most dialects, became ieu: $capt\bar{v}um > caitiu$ caitieu, $ast\bar{v}um >$ estiu esticu, $rev\bar{v}v\bar{e}r >$ reviure revieure, $s\bar{v}v\bar{v}s >$ sius sieus.

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33. Cl. L. \bar{o} , $\check{u} > V$. L. $\bar{o} > Pr$. \bar{o} , which developed into u probably during the literary period: *dolorem* > dolor, *sponsa* > esposa, *florem* > flor; *bucca* > boca, *gula* > gola.

1. An irregular o, which is found in some words, goes back to Vulgar Latin: $cobra = re-c \ iperat$, costa (also o) = $c \ onstat$, $nora = n \ irra$, $ou = \overline{ovum}$, $ploia = pl \ iversion view in a constat$, $red \ optimes in a constat$, $nora = n \ iversion view in a constat$, $red \ optimes in a constat$, $nora = n \ iversion view in a constat$, $red \ optimes in a constat \ optimes in a constat$

is not accounted for. If troba has anything to do with *türbat*, it was perhaps influenced by *pröbat* (cf. Zs., XXVIII, 50).

2. Some words have \ddot{u} : $\ddot{u}s$ (also $\dot{o}s$) $< de\bar{o}rsum$ shows the influence of $s\ddot{u}s < s\ddot{u}rsum$; $\ddot{u}r$ (usually $\dot{o}r$) $< ill\bar{o}rum$ (cf. *lur* in the dialects of Navarre and Aragon) comes through an $*ill\ddot{u}rum$ due to the analogy of $ill\ddot{u}i = illi$; melhüra (\dot{o}), peiüra (\dot{o}) perhaps follow a $\ddot{u}ra < *a(u)g\ddot{u}rat$; rancüra is a mixture of *rancorem* and *cūra*; $\ddot{u}s$ is from V. L. $\ddot{u}stium = ostium$ (cf. Zs., XXV, 355); $\ddot{u}pa < upupa varat$

3. The adverbs ar, ara, er, era, eras, meaning 'now,' are hardly to be connected with hōra. Meyer-Lübke takes era, etc., from a Latin *era corresponding to Greek ǎ ρ a; ara, ar may come directly from ǎ ρ a, ǎ ρ : cf. Gr., III, 552, note.

4. Adoutz, 'fount,' from adductus, probably owes its ou to the analogy of doutz, adouzar, from dülcis.

5. Tonleu, 'tariff,' from $\tau \epsilon \lambda \dot{\omega} \mu \omega \nu$, shows a metathesis of vowels and of consonants.

34. Before tš, dž (and it, id), before n', and before final i, an o becomes ü in various dialects: $c\bar{o}g\bar{i}tat > c\bar{u}ia$ cüida, * stŭdiat > estüia, fŭgit > füg, refŭgium > refüg; jŭngěre > iünher, ŭngěre > ünher, pŭgnum > pünh; džī > düi, sžm > so + i > süi. The ü before tš, dž apparently occurs everywhere except in Dauphiné; before n' it is to be found in nearly all the dialects of the north and west; before final i it seems to be limited to Bordeaux, Auvergne, and a part of Languedoc.

ô

35. Cl. L. $\check{o} > V$. L. $\varrho > Pr$. ϱ : $c\check{o}r > c\varrho r$, $c\check{o}rpus > c\varrho rs$, $m\check{o}rtem > mort$, $\check{o}p\check{e}ra > \varrho bra$, $r\check{o}ta > roda$.

For demora (also o) < *demorat, see Meyer-Lükbe, Gram., I, 204,
 § 220. For proa (also proa, prueva) < pröbat, see Rom., XXXI, 10, footnote 3.

36. Before a nasal, in most of the dialects of Limousin, Languedoc, and Gascony, o became o: bon = bon, fontem

21

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> font, pontem > pont. Cf. E. Levy in Mélanges de philologie romane dédiés à Carl Wahlund, 1896, p. 207.

I. If the nasal was n', the vowel remained open in most or all of these dialects: $c \delta gn \tilde{t} a > coinda$ cuenda cuenhda, $l \delta ng e > lonh$ luenh, $s \delta mnium > sonh$ suenh.

37. Early in the history of Provençal, before u, a labial consonant, a g or a k, an i, or one of the palatal consonants ľ, n', r', s', z', y, tš, dž, an o broke, in most dialects, into a diphthong which developed into ue, üo, üe, or ü¹: bovem > bou büou büeu, * ŏvum > ou üou üeu, nŏvus > nous nüous nüeus; * copero > cobri cuebre², nova > nova nueva, opus > ops üops, probat>proa prüeva, * tropo?>trop trüeb; coquus > cocs cuocs cuex, focum > foc fuoc fuec fue, crocus > grocs grüocs grüecs, jocum > ioc iüoc iüec iüc, locus > locs lüocs lüecs, $l \delta cat > l \ddot{u} oga$, $p \delta tui > p \ddot{u} ec$, $s \delta c(\check{e}) rum > (sozer)$ sogre süegre (fem. süegra); * ingrössiat > engroissa engrüeissa, * angostia > engoissa engüeissa, noctem > noit nüoit nüeit, octo > oit üeit, postea > poissas püeissas, proximus > proymes prüeymes; folia>folha füolha füelha fülha, oculus oclus>olhs üolhs üelhs ülhs, lõnge>lonh lüenh, sõmnium>sonh süenh, corium > cor cuer, postea > pues, proximum > prosme pruesme, *ploia > ploia plüeia plüia, *inodiat > enoia enüeia enüia, * podiat > poia püeia püia, noctem > nüoch nüech nüh, octo > üeg.

The breaking was probably due to a premature lifting of the tongue under the influence of a following high vowel or a palatal or velar consonant, or to a premature partial closure

¹ The conditions are not quite the same as for e: an e does not break before a labial (neps) nor before n' (venha). Breaking before g and k seems more general for o than for e.

² So the second person forms *cuebres*, *uebres*, *uefres*, and the third person forms *cuebre*, *uebre*, *uefre*; cf. cobron, obri, etc.

of the lips in anticipation of a following labial. Before i or a palatal the diphthong was at the start presumably üo; before u or a labial or velar consonant, uo: from these two types, the first of which influenced the second, came the later developments. Ü is a reduction of üo or üe; it apparently does not occur before u.

The dialect conditions are mixed, the development in each region depending somewhat on the following sound. In the southwest, o and ue seem to prevail; in the northwest, ü; in the west, in Limousin, and in Auvergne, üe; in Languedoc, üo; in the east and south, üe, üo, o.

The date of breaking is discussed in § 30.

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I. In some words where a diphthong would be expected, none is found, although it may have existed: mou < movet, nou < novem, plou < *plovit; trop < prop; brocs < *broccuss, iogon < jocunt, logui < loco. The form puoc or puec < potui is regularly reserved for the first person, potuit being represented by poc.

2. A few cases of irregular breaking are easily explained: püosc püesc $(=p\delta ssum)$ and püosca püesca $(=p\delta ssim)$ owe their diphthong either to earlier forms with s' or to the analogy of püec; sofre süefre süfre $(=s\delta fert)$ are from $*s\delta ferit$, formed upon $*\delta ferit = \delta fert$ (cf. § 33, 1); vüelc $(=v\delta lui)$ follows the analogy of vüelh $(<*v\delta leo = v\delta lo)$ and of püec.

ų

38. Cl. L. $\bar{u} > V$. L. u > Pr. \ddot{u} : * habūtus > avütz, jūstum > iüst, mūrum > mür, mūtus > mütz, nūdus > nütz, plūs > plüs.

The date of the change of u into \ddot{u} is not known; there is no \ddot{u} in Catalan, and there may have been none in early Gascon. It seems likely that the Celts, when they adopted Latin, pronounced \ddot{u} a little further forward in the mouth than did the Romans; that their u continued to advance gradually toward the front of the mouth until it became \ddot{u} ; and that this \ddot{u} spread to the parts of France that were not

originally Celtic.¹ In the literary period the sound was probably ü in the Provençal region, with the possible exception of Gascony.

I. Pr. onze represents a V. L. **ŭndžcim*, which in Gaul and Spain replaced *ūndžcim*. Loita lücha, trocha trücha probably go back to Latin double forms, **lŭcta lūcta*, **trŭcta trūcta*. Engoissa < V. L. **angöstia* = angūstia (cf. Italian *angoscia*).

2. Nossas $< *n \delta p tias = n \bar{u} p tias$, by analogy of $*n \delta v i u s$, 'bridegroom,' from $n \delta v u s$.

au

39. Cl. L. au > V. L. au > Pr. au: *aurum* > aur, *gaudium* > gaug, *paucum* > pauc, *thesaurus* > tesaurs.

I. Bloi < blaupr, ioi, ioia, ioios, lotia < *laubja, noiza, onta < haunipa, or, sor, tesor, etc., are French. Iai, 'joy,' seems to be a fusion of ioi and Pr. iai = gai.

2. Anta < haunipa is unexplained.

UNACCENTED VOWELS.

40. (1) The fate of an unaccented vowel depended largely upon the syllable in which it stood: in general, unstressed vowels in the initial syllable remained intact, while all vowels, except a, fell (at different dates) in the other syllables. The fall of unaccented vowels resulted in many new consonant groups: collocáre > colcár, hóminem > ómne, sábbatum > sápte.

(2) The vowels e and i, instead of falling or remaining unchanged, became y in Vulgar Latin, early in our era: *alea* > alya, *diŭrnus* > dyurnus, *mědium* > mędyu. Similarly u became w: *placui* > placwi, *těnuis* > tenwis.

I. Apparently, however, eé, ié > e; oó, uó > o: prěhěnděre > prěnděre; abřětem > *abětem, faciébat > *facébat, paršětem > parëtem, qužetus >

¹ For a discussion of the date, see K. Nyrop, *Grammaire historique de la langue française* (Copenhagen, 1899–1903), I, § 187.

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quētus; $c\delta h\delta r tem > c\bar{o}r tem$, $c\delta \delta p \bar{e}r it > c\bar{o}p \bar{e}r it * c\delta p \bar{e}r it$; $d\tilde{u} \delta d\tilde{e} cim > * d\bar{o} d\tilde{e}$ cim. The short e and o in *prendere* and * coperit are not accounted for. In *muliërem*¹ > Pr. molher the <u>i</u> remained long enough (perhaps under the influence of the nominative *mulier*) to palatalize the l.

INITIAL SYLLABLE.

41. Usually, in the literary language, Latin a > Pr. a; Latin x, ∞ , and e, i (without regard to quantity) > Pr. e; Latin o, u (long or short) > Pr. o; Lat. au > Pr. au, unless the next syllable contained an ú, in which case the au was reduced (in the Vulgar Latin time) to a. Ex.: $am\bar{i}cum > amic, caballus > cavals; <math>xqu\bar{a}lem > egal$, $*pxnitěre > penedre, debere > dever, měliorem > melhor, dīlěctum > deleit, dīvīnum > devin, dīvīděre > devire, <math>f \bar{i}n\bar{i}re > fenir, minorem > menor; plorare > plorar, solātium > solatz, colorem > color, <math>*volēre > voler, mustēla > mostela, subšinde > soven; aucěllum > auzel, audire > auzir, augustum > aost, *augurium > aür.$

I. An initial vowel is occasionally lost, either through elision with the article (*eclésia > *egleisa, la egleisa > la gleisa) or through the dropping of a prefix (ingénium > engenh genh): episcopus > bisbes, alauda > lauzeta, occasionem > occaiso caiso.

2. In a few words the vowel of the initial syllable disappeared, for some unknown reason, in Vulgar Latin: *cörrötüläre>*crötüläre> crollar, dīrēctus>drēctus²>dreitz, quirītāre>*crītāre>cridar.

3. Domne, used familiarly as a proclitic (§ 19), lost its first syllable, and, before a vowel, was reduced to n. The combinations de n, que n(followed by a proper name) were understood as d'en, qu'en; hence the title en, 'Sir.' See Schultz-Gora in Zs., XXVI, 588; Elise Richter in Zs., XXVII, 193.

4. The proclitic o probably comes from a V. L. ot, not from aut.

42. The vowel of the initial syllable, especially in verbs,

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¹ For the accent, see § 16, 1.

⁸ Spelled drictus : see Schuchardt, Vocalismus des Vulgärlateins, II, 422.

was extremely subject to the influence of analogy: cülhir (ϕ) through cülh $(\phi) < c \delta l l i g i t$, dizen $< d \overline{i} c \overline{e} n t$ through dire $< d \overline{i} c \overline{e} n t$ dirar through dür $< d \overline{u} r u m$ and düra $< d \overline{u} r a t$, finir through fin $< f \overline{i} n e m$, fivela through fibla $< f \overline{i} b u l a$, pueiar (ϕ) through pueia $(\phi) < * p \overline{o} d \overline{i} a t$.

1. Avangeli (e) is perhaps influenced by avan; bliso (e) < blas may possibly have been influenced by tiso; gazardo < widarlôn shows the influence of gazanhar; in piucela (pülcela) < *püellicella (Zs., XXV, 343) the püu of the first syllable was changed to piu perhaps under the influence of pius < pius; in vas = ves < ve(r)sus the a is due to the analogy of az < ad; vais is unexplained, vaus follows daus (§ 44, 6). If desse is from de exin, the first syllable is irregular. Beside maniar < manducare are unexplained forms meniar miniar. In duptar (o), suritz (o) the u doubtless represents u or o, not ü. Girofle < Kapub ϕ ullov and olifan orifan < elephantem are French.

43. Sometimes the initial syllable was altered by a change of prefix or a false idea of etymology: aucire < occiděre (cf. the Italian and Rumanian forms), diman (e) < de máne and dimenge < doměnicum (cf. di < diem), dementre < dum intérim (cf. de < de), engoissa < * angüstia (cf. en < in), envanezir <evaněscěre, escür < obscūrum (cf. es $- < ex_-$), preon prefon (o) <profündum, redon < rotündum (re- in V. L.: Schuchardt, Vocalismus des Vulgärlateins, II, 213), trabalh < trepalium (cf. tra-< tra- = trans-).

I. On the same principle are doubtless to be explained such double forms as evori (a), saboros (e), socors (e), somondre (e), soror (e). Serori occurs in a Latin inscription.

2. The prefix eccu-, under the influence of ac and atque, became *accuin southern Gaul and elsewhere: aco < *accu'hoc, aquel < *accu'illum, aquest < *accu'istum, aqui < *accu'hic. Eissi < ecce hic sometimes becomes aissi through the analogy of aissi < ac sic.

3. In such forms as tresanar, the prefix tres- is French.

^e 44. Local or partial phonetic changes affected the initial

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syllable of many words: demandar (do-) < demandāre, emplir (üm-) < *implēre*; ciutat cieutat < *cīvitātem*; eissir issir < *exīre*, getar gitar < **jēctāre*; crear criar < *creāre*; merce (mar-) < *mercēdem*; delgat (dal-) < *delicātum*.

1. Nearly everywhere there is a tendency to change e to 0, u, or \ddot{u} before a labial, especially before m: premier promier prumier, remas romas, semblar somblar, trebalh trubalh. So de ves >* do ves > dous.

2. In the 13th century, nearly everywhere, iu > ieu: piucela pieucela.

3. Many dialects of the north and west change ei and e to i: deissendre dissendre, eissam issam, eissi issi, eissilh issilh, leisso lisso, meitat mitat; degerir (i), denhar (i), disnar, en in, enfern (i), entrar (i), envers (i), escien icient, proclitic est ist, estar (i), estiers(i), Felip (i), gelos (i), genhos (i), genolh (i), gequir (i), guereiar (i), guerensa (i), i(n)vern, isnel irnel, peior pigor, proclitic per pir, premier (i), semblar (i), serven (i), serventes (i), sevals (i), trebalhar (i), tremblar (i). In disnar, ivern, isnel only i is found. In some dialects there is an alternation of e and i, e being used when there is an i in the next syllable, i when there is none: fenit, sirvén. In vert < vicinum the e probably goes back to V. L.: cf. Fr.

4. In a few dialects e in hiatus with a following vowel becomes i: crear criar, leal lial, prear priar, preon prion, real rial.

5. In many dialects of the north and west e has a tendency to become a before r: guerentia garensa, merce marce, pergamen pargamen.

6. In some dialects there is a tendency to assimilate e to an \acute{a} in the next syllable: delgat dalgat, gigant iaian, deman (a), semblar (a), serrar (a), tremblar (a). So de vás (§ 42, 1) > da vás > dávas; hence daus, under the influence of deus > de ves.

INTERTONIC SYLLABLE.

45. The term *intertonic* is applied to the syllable that follows the secondary (§ 18) and precedes the primary accent. In this position all vowels, except a, regularly disappeared in popular words, probably between the 5th and the 8th century¹; a apparently remained: $*b\ddot{u}llic\bar{a}re > boiar$ (bollegar),

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¹ The period of the fall of the intertonic vowel covers, in part, the period of the voicing of intervocalic surds (§ 65); sometimes the vowel fell too soon for the surd

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bonitātem > bontat, *carricāre > carcar cargar, caballicāre > cavalcar cavalgar, cērēbēllum > cervel, cīvītātem > ciutat, collocāre > colcar colgar, dēlicātum > delcat delgat, excommūnicāre *excomminicāre > escomeniar, vērēcūndia > vergonha; calamēllum > calamel, invadēre *invadīre > envazir, margarīta > margarida, mīrabīlia > miravilha, parav(e)rēdus > palafres.

1. The vowel is preserved in a number of words in which it originally bore the secondary accent (§ 18): abbréviáre > abreuiar, cupiditátem > cobeitat, *eríciónem > erisso; on the other hand, *cominitiáre (through *cominitiáre) > comensar, partítiónem (through *pártiónem) > parso. Cf. Zs., XXVII, 576, 684, 693, 698, 701, 704. When kept, the vowel is sometimes altered: *carōnea *caróneáta > caraunhada, *cupiditósus > cobeitos cobitos,papiliónem > pabalho.

 The prefix minus- was reduced to mis- (or mes-) in Gaul, perhaps at the close of the Vulgar Latin period: *minus-prétiat > mespreza. Cf. P. Marchot, Phon., pp. 43, 44.

3. Mostier is from *monistërium, altered, by the influence of ministërium, from monastërium. Comprar is from V. L. comperare. Calmelh calmelha (cf. calamel above) are Provençal formations from calm. Caresma or caresme, from quadragësima, is probably French. Anedier < anatarium shows the influence of anét ánet < anätem (§ 50).

4. In learned words the vowel is generally preserved: *irregulár*, *irritár*, *pelicán*, *philozophía*. The vowel is, however, often altered, the exchange of e and i being particularly frequent: *esperit*, *femenil*, *orifán*, *peligri* (e), *soteirán* (*sotrán*) \leq *subterraneum* influenced by *dereirán* and *primeirán*.

46. Very often the intertonic vowel was preserved by the analogy of some cognate word or form in which that vowel was stressed: devinár through *devin*, finimén through *finir*, guerreiár through guerréia, noiridúra through noirír, oblidár through oblit, pertusár through pertúsa, reusar through reúsa, servidór through servíre.

to be voiced, sometimes it did not. The relation of the fall of unstressed vowels to the development of intervocalic consonants, in French, has been examined by L. Clédat in the *Revue de philologie française*, in a series of articles beginning XVII, 122. Cf. P. Marchot, *Phon.*, pp. 84-90.

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1. In such cases the preserved vowel is sometimes altered, the exchange of e and i being especially common: avinén, covinén, sovinénsa, cf. venír, ven; enginhár, enginhás, cf. genh; envelzír, cf. vil; gememén, cf. gemír; issarnít (eissernít), from excérněre; randóla, from hirŭndŭla, perhaps influenced by randón; temerós (o), from *timorōsus, influenced by temér; traazó (i), from traditionem, with a substitution of suffix; volentiérs, from voluntarius, under the influence of volén < volentem.

PENULT.

47. (1) The vowel of the penult of proparoxytones fell in many words in Vulgar Latin, especially between a labial and another consonant, and between two consonants one of which was a liquid: *avica > *auca, com(i)tem, comp(u)tum, deb(i) $tum, dom(i)nus^1; alt(e)ra, vig(i)lat, cal(i)dus, vir(i)dem;$ frig(i)dus, nitidus > *nittus, pos(i)tus, putidus > *puttus.

(2) The classic Latin -culus comprises an original -clus (*sæclum*) and an original -culus (*aurĭcŭla*). In popular Latin both were -clus (**macla*, *öclus*, etc.), to which was assimilated $-t\tilde{u}lus$ in current words ($v\tilde{e}t\tilde{u}lus > v\tilde{e}clus$, etc.).

(3) Many popular words which in Vulgar Latin had very generally lost the vowel were for some reason introduced into southern Gaul in their classical forms, and not a few were adopted both in the uncontracted and in the syncopated state: fragilem>frágel (cf. Fr. fraile, It. frale), jűvěnem> iove (cf. Fr. iuevne); clěricum> clergue clěr'cum> clerc, dēbitum> deute dēb'tum> depte, flēbilem> frevol flēb'lem> freble, mal'habitum> malaute mal'hab'tum> malapte, nitidum> nede * nittum> net, höminem> ome höm'nem> omne, pöpülum> pobol pöp'lum> poble.

1. Cögnitum seems to have become *conhede, whence coinde cuende conge. Cf. § 79, Gnd, Gnt.

¹ Domnus may be the older form.

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48. The unaccented penult vowels that had not already fallen dissappeared, in most cases, in the transition from Latin to Provençal: **carricat*> carca, *cŏllŏcat*> colca, *cŭrrĕre*> corre, *spathŭla*> espatla, **ĕssĕre* (=*ĕsse*)> estre, i(n)sŭla isla, *pĕssšmum*> pesme, *pōnĕre*> ponre, **rīdĕre*> rire, *tabŭla*> taula, *tŏllĕre*> tolre.

1. A apparently was more tenacious than other vowels, and frequently remained as an indistinct e: anǎtem > ánet, which, being associated with the diminutive ending -ét, became anét (cf. modern Pr. anèdo); cannǎbim > cánebe (learned?); còlǎphum > * cólebe > colbe, but còl'phum > colp; Stěphǎnum > Esteve; lampǎda > lámpeza; ŏrgǎnum > órguene (later orguéne) órgue; ŏrphǎnum > orfe; raphǎnum > ráfe; Rhòdǎnum > Rozer; * sēcāle (= sěcāle) > séguel (but cf. modern segle selho). Cf. A. Thomas in the Journal des savants, June, 1901, p. 370. See also P. Marchot, Phon., pp. 90-94. Cf. § 45, footnote. It is noteworthy that * cólebe ultimately lost its penult, while the other words lost the final syllable or none.

49. Under certain conditions, however, a vowel which had not fallen in the Latin of southern Gaul was often kept in Provençal. It was then probably indistinct in sound, and was written usually e, but occasionally o.

(1) After c', g', or y the vowel was apparently retained in some dialects and lost in others. When the c', g', or y was intervocalic, forms with and without the vowel are about equally common; when the c', g', or y was preceded by a consonant, forms with the vowel predominate, and after cons. + c' the vowel was apparently never lost. After intervocalic c': cocere (= coquere)> coire cozer, dicere> dire dízer, ducere > düire *düzer (condücir dedüzir), facere> faire *fazer (fazedor, etc.), gracilem> graile, *nocere (= nocere)> noire nozer, placitum> plach, socerum> sozer (sogre is from socrum), *vocitum (= vacuum)> vuech. After intervocalic g' or y: bajülus> bailes, fragilem> frågel, imaginem> imáge, légère > leire legír (through *leger?), rěgidum> reide rege, rěgida>

regeza, * tragěre (= trahěre) > traire tragír (through * tráger?). After cons. + c': carcer > cárcer, crēscěre > creisser, nascěre > náisser, pascěre > páisser, parcěre > párcer, * törcěre (= törquēre) > torzer. After cons. + g' or y: angělum > ángel (learned?), * cöll'gěre (= cölligěre, through cölligo etc.) > colre cuelher colhír, * dē-ēr'gěre (= ērigěre) > derdre derzer, * fülgěrem (from fülger = fülgur) > fouzer, jüngěre > ionher, marginem > marge, plangěre > planher, virginem > vergena verge.

(2) After ks, s, ss, and sy the vowel was apparently retained in some dialects and lost in others: $d\bar{i}x\check{e}runt > diron$ disseron (through * disseron)¹, $d\bar{u}x\check{e}runt > d\ddot{u}y$ strent düisseron (* dúisseron), $frax\check{n}um > fraisne$ fraisse, $trax\check{e}runt >$ traisseron (* tráisseron), $t\check{o}x\check{t}cum >$ tueissec; $as\check{n}um >$ asne ase, $m\check{s}\check{e}rum >$ miser (learned), * $pr\bar{e}(n)s\check{e}runt >$ preson prezeron (* prezeron), $rema(n)s\check{e}runt >$ remastrent remaseron (* remáseron); * $\check{e}ss\check{e}re$ (= $\check{e}sse$) > estre esser (used in Rouergue, Limousin, Marche, and Dauphiné), * $m\check{s}s\check{e}runt$ (= $m\bar{s}\check{e}runt$) > mestrunt (mesdren) meseron (* messeron), $pass\check{e}rem > passer;$ * $c\bar{o}(n)$ si $\check{e}re$ (= $consu\check{e}re$) > coser (cozír is from V. L. *cosire).

(3) Between a labial and a dental the vowel was apparently kept: $c \check{u} p \check{i} dum > cobe$, $f \check{e} m \check{i} na > f emena f eme (but <math>f \check{e} m \check{n} a > f emna)$, $j \check{u} v \check{e} nem > i ove$, $* l \check{u} m \check{i} nem > l \ddot{u} me (l \check{u} men > l \ddot{u} m)$, $h \check{o} m \check{i} nem > o men o me (but h \check{o} m \check{n} \check{e} m > o mne)$, $i \check{e} p \check{i} dum > t e be$, $t \check{e} r m \check{i} num > t e rme$. Cf. § 48, 1.

(4) Between a dental and a guttural the vowel remained long enough for the guttural to become y (\S 52; \S 65, G): *mědšcum* > * mędegu > * mędeye > mędže (= mege). If the first consonant was a liquid or a nasal, the vowel apparently allowed the guttural to become y in some dialects, but not in

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¹ The change of accent, in this verb and others, was due to the analogy of the first and fourth conjugations (canteron, sentíron) and to the influence of the second person plural (dissetz).

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others: *carricat caria carga, clěricum clerie clergue, mõnächum > monie mongue. Caballicat > cavalga, cõllõcat > colca colga show an earlier fall. In clěr cum > clerc the fall goes back to Latin times.

50. Some learned proparoxytones kept for a while both post-tonic vowels (usually written e), but most of them ultimately either shifted their accent to the penult (§ 17, 1) or dropped their final syllable: doměsticum > domestegue, lacrima > lágrema, měritum > merite, hörrida > oreza, rēgimen > régeme; fistūla > festóla, fragilem > fragil, měritum > merít, těrminum > termíni; diaconum > diágue, flēbilem > frevol (cf. flēb'lem > freble), nitidum > nede (cf. * nittum > net), ordinem > órde, populum > pobol (cf. pop'lum > poble), principem > príncep prínce. Cf. § 47, (3).

FINAL SYLLABLE.

51. As early as the 8th century, in popular words, the vowels of final syllables fell, the fall occuring first, perhaps, after liquids: $h \check{e} r \check{i} > er$, $ma \check{e} > mal$; $b \check{o} n \check{u} s > bos$, $c \check{o} \check{l} \check{a} p h \check{u} m >$ colp, $c \check{o} g \check{i} to > c \ddot{u} g$, $p a n \check{e} m > pan$, $p r \check{e} t \check{i} \check{u} m > pretz$.

(1) Latin a, however, remained, being generally pronounced a: *audiăm* > auia, *bŏnă* > bona, f iliās > filhas.¹

(2) Latin final i probably remained in all dialects later than the 8th century, and in some until the beginning of the literary period: $h\dot{a}bu\bar{i} > \dot{a}gui > aguí$. Before it fell, it changed an accented e in the preceding syllable to i: see § 27.

(3) Latin i and u remained if they were immediately

¹In most of the modern dialects (but not in Gascony and lower Languedoc) this a has become o: rosa > roso. But in the Limousin dialects and some others -as > -a: rosas > rosa.

preceded by an accented vowel: $fu\bar{\imath} > f\bar{u}\bar{\imath} , m\bar{e}\bar{\imath} > mei, s\bar{u}\bar{\imath} > soi;$ cavum * caum > chau, děus > deus, ego * čo * ču > eu, rīvum rīum < riu. In such cases the two vowels formed a diphthong.

(4) Before final nt Latin e, u remained as e, o: cantent> canten, vēndunt>vendon.

I. In Aude, Tarn, Aveyron, Corrèze, and a part of Haute-Garonne, final i was preserved as late as the 12th century: *pagadi, salvi, soli*. See *Rom.*, XIV, 291-2. Such forms occur also in Vaud and Dauphiné. Cf. *Gram.*, II, p. 82.

2. In the extreme east there are traces of final $-\bar{os}$: aquestos, ellos, tantos.

3. Grau for gra < gradum, niu for $ni < n\overline{i}dum$ are Catalan. Amiu for $amic < am\overline{i}cum$, chastiu for chastic $< cast\overline{i}go$ belong to the dialect of Forez, and point to a very early fall of the guttural in that dialect. Cf. § 65, D, G.

4. Ferre beside the commoner fer < f örrum is perhaps due to the analogy of terra. Aire, vaire, beside air < a örem, vair < varium, probably show the influence of the numerous nouns in -aire (amaire, etc.); cf. § 52, (1). Fores is doubtless a cross between foras < föras and fors < föris. Nemes beside nems < nimis, senes beside sens < sine perhaps follow the analogy of fors fores. For colbe, see § 48, 1. Reide rede perhaps owes its -e to rege: § 49, (1).

5. Coma, beside com, con, $co < qu\bar{o}m\delta(do)$, apparently owes its -a to the analogy of the adverbs bona and mala and other adverbs of manner. For a different explanation, see J. Vising in the Tobler Festschrift (Abhand-lungen Herrn Prof. Dr. Tobler \ldots dargebracht, 1895), p. 113.

6. Demanes < de manu ipsa lost its -a perhaps under the influence of ades.

7. E seems to have been preserved in the second person singular of some verbs, to distinguish it from the third person: $co(g)n\bar{o}scis < connoisses$, $co(g)n\bar{o}scit > conois$.

52. When the fall of the vowel would have resulted in an undesirable consonant group at the end of a word, the vowel was retained as an indistinct e: $d\tilde{u}b\tilde{t}to > dopte$, $l\tilde{u}crum > logre$.

The principal groups that call for a supporting vowel are:

(1) a consonant and a liquid; (2) a labial and a dental; (3) in proparoxytones, a consonant and a c' or c originally separated by the vowel of the penult; (4) in proparoxytones, a consonant and an m or n originally separated by the vowel of the penult. Ex.: *inter*>entre; *aptum*>apte; $*d\bar{o}d\bar{e}cim$ > dotze, $j\bar{u}d\bar{i}co$ >iütge; *Jacomus>Iacmes, *asinum*>asne.

If the word was a paroxytone, and the first consonant was a palatal and the second an r, the supporting vowel stood between the two: *major*>maier, *mčlior*>melher, *mčlier*> molher, *pčjor*>peier, *sčnior*>senher. Otherwise the supporting vowel followed the consonant group.

The four classes of groups (aside from the palatal + r just mentioned) will now be examined in detail:---

(1) Examples: alter > autre, Carolus > Carles, duplus > dobles, * ěssěre > estre, fabrum > fabre, * měr(ŭ) lum > merle, nöster > nostre, pauper > paubre, $p \check{o} p(\check{u}) lum > poble, p \check{o} n \check{e} re >$ ponre, recipere > recebre, rumpere > rompre, tollere > tolre, volvěre > volvre; masculum > mascle, etc.; fleb(i)lem > freble, etc. Under this head is included r-r (currere>corre, quarěre>querre), but not ll and rr (běllum>bel, férrum>fer). In Provençal the first element was often changed, later than the 8th century, into a vowel, original b and v becoming u, and d, t, c, g, and y being turned to i: bibere > beure, scriběre > escriure, * movere > moure, plovere > ploure, vivere > viure; latro>laire, matrem>maire, raděre>raire, * rīděre> rire, vitrum > veire; desīdero > desire, etc.; amator > amaire, servitor > servire, etc.; dīcere > dire, ducere > duire, facere > faire, gracilem > graile, * tacere > taire; frigere > frire, weigaro gaire, legere > leire; bajulum > baile. Apparent exceptions to the rule are intervocalic cl, gl, which were probably reduced to single consonants before the 8th century: $\delta c(\tilde{u}) lum > 0$ lh, vig(i) lo > velh.

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I. The rare forms *frair*, *pair*, beside regular *fraire*, *paire*, are perhaps . due to the alternative forms *air aire*, *vair vaire* (§ 51, 4). There may be a similar explanation for *faur* = *faure* < *faber*, and for the learned *albir* = *albire* < *arbitrium*. Sor, beside *sorre* < *soror*, probably developed first as a proclitic.

(2) Examples: cūbštum > code; comštem > comte; dēbštum
> depte deute, § 47, (3); domnum > domne; dubšto > dopte;
hospštem > oste; sabbātum > sapte.

I. Azaut seems to be post-verbal from azautar < adaptäre. Escrit < scrīptum probably shows the influence of dit < dictum. Malaut, beside malaute malapte $< mal^2 habitum$, is perhaps reconstructed from the feminine malauta on the model of aut, auta. Set < septem must have developed as a proclitic.

(3) Examples: jūdicem > iütge¹; põllicem > pouze; quinděcim > quinze; salicem > sauze; sěděcim > sedze;—canŏnicum > canonge canorgue,² § 49, (4); clěricum > clerge clergue (§ 48, 2); mědicum > metge; mŏnăchum > monge mongue morgue,² § 49, (4); vindico > venie; viaticum > viatge, etc.

I. The forms *poutz*, *sautz*, beside *pouze*, *sauze*, would seem to indicate that lc' did not require a supporting vowel in all dialects.

2. *Ficotum (=jēcur), a fusion of $\sigma v\kappa \omega \tau \delta v$ ('fig-fattened') and fīcus, combined with * $h\bar{c}p\check{a}te$ (= $h\bar{c}par$), became *fécatu *fecitu *fegidu, and then, through the influence of the familiar ending -igu (=icum), *fedigu >fetge. See G. Paris in Miscellanea linguistica in onore di G. Ascoli, 1901, p. 41; H. Schuchardt in Zs., XXV, 615, and XXVIII, 435; L. Clédat in Revue de philologie française et de littérature, XV, 235. Pege, for peich <pěctus, seems to be due to the analogy of fetge.

(4) Examples: æstīmo>esme; dčečīmum>desme; fraxīnum>fraisne; incūdīnem>enclütge (cf. § 80, Dn); *metipsīmum>medesme; pēssīmum>pesme; proximus>prosmes.

I. Faim < facimu(s) doubtless lost its -e through the analogy of the alternative form fazem < * facimu(s) and of the usual endings -ám, -em.

¹ The tg in this word is probably due to the influence of *iutiar* $< j\bar{u}d\bar{i}c\bar{a}re$.

² The forms with r may be due to dissimilation or to the influence of *clergue*.

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(5) In some dialects, at least, by, mby, mny, py, rny required a supporting vowel: $r \ u b e u m > rotge$, cambio > camie, $s \ o mnium > songe$ suenh, a p i u m > a che api, $Arv \ e rnium > Al$ vernhe; ratge (= rabiem) is probably French. Original lm, rm, sm required a supporting vowel in some dialects but not in others: $h \ e l m > e l m e \ e l m$, $u \ mum > o l m e \ o l m$, $p \ a l m u m >$ palm; $* \ e rmum$ ($\ e p \ u m > v \ e m$, $f \ i rmum > f \ e rm$, $g \ e rm \ m > g \ e rm$ me; $s \ p \ a smum > e \ spassme$.

(6) Many verbs regularly have an -e in the first person singular of the present indicative: desire, dopte, iütge, etc. By the analogy of these, -e often appears in the first person singular of verbs which need no supporting vowel: remīro > remir remire. By the analogy of the preterit (águi, füi, etc.), -i is very often substituted for this -e: azor azori, cant canti, pretz prezi, etc.

53. Many late words preserve the final vowel as -e: benigne, bisbe < episcopum, digne (cf. denhar), mixte (cf. mest), regne (cf. reing), signe (cf. senh). Cf. § 50; (for colbe) § 48, 1; and (for coinde, etc.) § 47, 1. Learned formations from nouns in -ium usually end in -i, simply dropping the -um: capitoli, edifici, emperi, iüzízi, martíri (martíre), negoci, ofíci, periüri, remezi, servízi, vici. Similar forms in -iwere sometimes taken from the accusative of nouns and adjectives in -ius: Boeci < Boëthium, propri (propre) < proprium, savi < sabium.

I. It should be remembered that the Latin words, at the time of their adoption, had undergone various phonetic changes in the clerical pronunciation: cf. § 15. A form *remesi*, for instance, presupposes a pronunciation of *remědium* as remeðiu(m).

PROVENÇAL PHONOLOGY.

3. CONSONANTS.

54. The Latin consonants which we have to consider are: b, c (=k), d, f, g, h, j (=y), l, m, n, p, qu (=kw), r, s, t, v (=w), x (=ks). To these we must add the Vulgar Latin w coming from u, and y coming from e, i: see § 40, (2). Furthermore, in words borrowed from Germanic dialects we find b, ∂ , h, k, p, w, which call for special notice; and, in words borrowed from Greek, ch, k, ph, th, z.

The Latin d, f, j, l, p, t call for no remark at present. Latin h, in popular speech, became silent very early ($h \delta c > \delta c$, $h \delta m o > \delta m o$), and, although an attempt was made to restore it in polite speech, it left no trace in the Romance languages: cf. Rom., XI, 399. Double consonants were pronounced distinctly longer than single ones: annus, ille, $\delta ssum$, terra.

55. Latin b, c, g, m, n, qu, r, s, v, w, x, y show the following developments in popular Latin speech:—

B between vowels became, through failure to close the lips tightly, β (bilabial v), from the 1st to the 3d century of our era: *habere* > a β ere. The same change took place, to a certain extent, when the b was not intervocalic, but we have few, if any, traces of it in Provençal. Between vowels, even in learned words, the clerical pronunciation was probably β or v until the 7th century. Cf. V.

C before a front vowel (e, i), as early as the 3d century, doubtless had, in nearly all the Empire, a front or palatal articulation; that is, it was formed as close as possible to the following vowel¹: centum > c'entu, ducere > duc'ere. The next step was the introduction of an audible glide, a brief y, between the c' and the vowel²: c'yentu, duc'yere. By the

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N

¹Compare, in English, the c of coo and the k of key.

² Compare the old-fashioned pronunciation of words like card, kind.

5th century this c'y had developed into a kind of ty, the c' having been drawn still further forward: t'yentu dut'yere. Through a modification of the y-glide, the group then became, in the 6th or 7th century, tš or ts: tšentu tsentu. See H. Schuchardt, Voc., I, 151, and Ltblt, XIV, 360; P. E. Guarnerio, in Supplementi all'Archivio glottologico italiano, IV (1897), pp. 21-51 (cf. Rom., XXX, 617); G. Paris, in the Journal des savants, 1900, 359, in the Annuaire de l'École pratique des Hautes-Études, 1893, 7, in the Comptes rendus des séances de l'Académie des Inscriptions, 1893, 81, and in Rom., XXXIII, 322; W. Meyer-Lübke, Einf., pp. 123-126; F. G. Mohl, Zs., XXVI, 595; P. Marchot, Phon., pp. 51-53; P. Meyer, Die Aussprache des c und t im klassischen Latein, 1902. Cf. G and X.¹

G between vowels, before the accent, disappeared in some words in at least a part of the Empire: $le(g)\bar{a}lis$, $li(g)\bar{a}men$, $re(g)\bar{a}lis$, (realis is attested for the 8th century); ego, generally used as a proclitic, everywhere lost its g; on the other hand, g was kept in castigāre, fatigāre, ligāre, negāre, pagānus. G before a front vowel (e, i), by the 1st or 2d century, was pronounced g' (cf. C): gentem > g'ente, fragilis > frag'īlis. As early as the 4th century this g', through failure to form a close articulation, opened into y²: yente, fráyilis. Before an accented e or i an intervocalic y disappeared, in the greater part of the Empire, being fused with the vowel: magister > mayister > maester, *pagēnsis > payesis > paesis, regīna > reyina > reina.¹

M and n, when final, were weak and indistinct from the earliest times, except in monosyllables; by the 3d or 4th cen-

¹ For final -ci, -gi in plurals, see § 92, (2).

² Before this, frigidus had become frigdus in Italy and Gaul.

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tury they had probably disappeared altogether from the end of polysyllables: damnu, nome; but jam, non.

N before spirants (f, j, s, v), except in the prefixes *con*- and *in*-, became silent during the Republican period, the preceding vowel, if it was short, being lengthened by compensation¹: $m\bar{e}(n)sis$, $p\bar{e}(n)sare$. If the syllable *con*- or *in*- was not recognized as a prefix, the n fell: co(n)sul, co(n)ventum, i(n)fas. In learned and newly constructed words the *n* was pronounced. Cf. M.

Qu, gu before o or u were reduced to c, g in the 1st or 2d century: see W.

R before s, in a number of words, became s in the Republican period: $de\bar{o}rsum > de\bar{o}ssum$, $d\bar{o}rsum > d\bar{o}ssum$, $s\bar{u}rsum >$ sūssum; so, in a part of the Empire, $p\bar{e}rs\bar{i}ca > p\bar{e}ss\bar{i}ca$, $v\bar{e}rsus$ (preposition) > vessus. Early in our era ss after a long vowel was reduced to s: deosu, sūsu.

S was probably always voiceless, or surd, in classic Latin, but became voiced between vowels, in Gaul, at the end of the Vulgar Latin period: *casa*. To initial s + consonant an ior e was prefixed, at first, no doubt, after a word ending in a consonant: *in schöla* > in iscŏla; this process began in the 2d century and had become general by the 4th.

V, originally pronounced w, became β probably in the 1st century: $v\bar{v}v\bar{e}re > \beta\bar{\iota}\beta\bar{e}re$. Before u, v regularly disappeared, but it was restored by analogy in many words: flavus > flaus, $\bar{v}vum > \check{o}um$, $r\bar{v}vus > r\bar{\iota}us$; but also $\check{o}vum$, $r\bar{v}vus$, by the analogy of ova, rivi. In the greater part of the Empire v apparently fell also before an accented o: $pav\bar{o}nem > pa\bar{o}ne$, $pav\bar{o}$ $rem > pa\bar{o}re$. Cf. W. When a β , representing either b or v,

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¹ It is natural to suppose that the n, in falling, nasalized the vowel; but no trace of this nasality remains.

became contiguous to a following consonant, it changed to u: * $avica > a\betaica > auca, gabăta > ga\betaata > gauta, * flavitat > fla$ ßitat > flautat. In several words rv became rb in Latin: vervēcem > berbēce berbīce, cõrvus > cõrbus, cũrvus > cũrbus.

W coming, in the 2d or 3d century, from u (§ 40) differed from Latin v, then pronounced β , but was probably identical with Germanic w: $d\bar{c}bu\bar{i} > debwi$, $placu\bar{i} > placwi sapuit >$ sapwit, $t\bar{c}nuis > tenwis$. W fell between a consonant and o or u: $ant\bar{i}quus > anticus$, battuo > batto, carduus > cardus, $<math>c\bar{o}quus > cocus$, distinguo > distingo, mortuus > mortus; so $eccu'h\bar{o}c > Pr. aco. Cf. Qu.$

X (=ks) was reduced to s, in the 2d or 3d century, before a consonant or at the end of a word of more than one syllable: sĕstus, sĕnes; but sĕx. So the prefix ex -> es- before any consonant but s: *exgaudēre > Pr. esiauzir, *exlucēre <Pr. esluzir, *exmittēre > Pr. esmetre. Ex- + s apparently became either ex- or ess-: *exsanguinātum > Pr. eissancnat, *exserāre > Pr. eissarrar esserrar, *exsaritāre > Pr. eissartar, *exsēquěre > Pr. essegre, *exsűrgěre > Pr. essorger, *exsūcāre> Pr. eissügar essügar.

Y coming, in the 2d or 3d century, from e or i, (§ 40) coincided with Latin *j*: habeam > abya, $e\bar{a}mus$ > yamus, $t\bar{e}neat$ > tenyat; audio > audyo, $f\bar{i}lia$ > filya, $v\bar{e}niat$ > venyat. As early as the 4th century the groups dy, gy were reduced to y; and ly, ny probably became l', n': $m\bar{e}dius$ > medyus > meyus, corrigia > corrigya > correya; $m\bar{e}lior$ > melyor > mel'or, $t\bar{e}neo$ > tenyo > ten'o.

56. Germanic b, δ , h, k, p, w call for special mention:-

B did not participate in the change of Latin intervocalic b to β : *roubôn* > Pr. raubar. The words containing it were evidently adopted after this phonetic law had ceased to operate.

ð, þ were pronounced by the Latins as d, t: *waiðanjan> *wadanyāre> Pr. gazanhar (It. guadagnare), þ*rëscan*> *trescāre> Pr. trescar.

H, at the beginning of a word, was lost in the greater part of the Empire, including southern Gaul: hapja > *apya > Pr. apcha. H between vowels was lost in some words and replaced by kk in others: $sp\ddot{e}h\partial n > Pr$. espiar, $f\ddot{e}hu > Pr$. feu; $j\ddot{e}han > *yekkire > Pr$. gequir. Ht was regularly replaced by tt: slahta > *sclatta > Pr. esclata; but wahta, perhaps borrowed later, became Pr. gaita.

K, in southern Gaul, did not take the palatal pronunciation before front vowels: $sk\ddot{e}rnon > Pr$. esquernir, skina > Pr. esquina, skiuhan > Pr. esquivar, *rik-itia > Pr. riqueza; only the derivatives of *Franko* (doubtless Latinized early) show palatalization, as *Francia > Pr. Fransa. G, however, seems to have been palatalized: giga > Pr. giga, geisla > Pr. giscle. Before a, in words introduced early, k and g were treated like Latin c and g: kausjan > Pr. cauzir chauzir, gahi > Pr. gai iai; see § 11, (1).

W was vigorously pronounced, and, through reinforcement of its velar element, came to be sounded gw: warjan > * warire gwarīre > Pr. garir, werra > * werra gwerra > Pr. guerra.

57. Greek ζ , θ , κ , ϕ , χ did not exactly correspond to any Latin consonants: —

Z, whatever may have been its original pronunciation, received in Vulgar Latin the value dy, which then, like any other dy, became y: *zelōsus (from $\zeta \hat{\eta} \lambda o_{S}$) = dyelosus yelosus > Pr. gelos. The infinitive ending $-l\zeta ev$, introduced in such words as $\beta a \pi \tau i \zeta ev > baptizāre = bapti(d) yāre, became very$ common in the form <math>-i dyāre -i yāre, and was used to make

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new verbs: $w\ddot{e}rra + i\zeta \epsilon v > *$ werridyāre gwerriyāre > Pr. guerreiar.

 θ , in the popular speech of Rome, was replaced by t: similarly χ was replaced by c: $\sigma \pi a \theta \eta > spatha = spata; \chi o \rho \delta \eta > ch \delta r da = corda.$

 κ was apparently intermediate in sound between Latin c and g; it was generally replaced by the former, but sometimes by the latter: $\kappa \alpha \tau \alpha > cata$, $\kappa \upsilon \beta \epsilon \rho \nu \hat{\alpha} \nu > gubernare$.

 ϕ , in Greek, was in early times (perhaps until the 4th century of our era) a strongly explosive p; it then developed into f. In words borrowed by the Romans in the early period it was replaced by p; in later words it was sounded f: $\kappa \dot{\rho}$ $\lambda a \phi os > c \delta l \check{a} \rho h us = colapus, \phi a \sigma i \delta \lambda os > \rho h a se \delta l us fase \delta l us.$

58. The fate of all these consonants in Provençal depended largely on their position in the word: we must therefore distinguish *initial*, *medial*, and *final* consonants. In a general way, the first tended to remain unchanged, the second to weaken, the third to disappear. Furthermore we must separate single consonants from consonant groups: the latter resisted change better than the former; but a group consisting of dissimilar elements tended to assimilate them.

INITIAL CONSONANTS.

59. A consonant preceded by a prefix was treated as an initial consonant as long as the character of this preceding syllable was recognized: de-caděre > decazer, de-pingěre > depenher, præ-parãre > preparar, re-cordãre > recordar, re-patriãre > repairar, re-pausãre > repausar, se-dūcěre > sedüire. If, however, the initial syllable ceased to be recognized as a prefix, the following consonant was treated as a medial con-

sonant: præpösitum > prebost, retörta > redorta; so, perhaps, profündum > preon. The rare rebonre (beside reponre) < re-poněre has the special sense 'to bury'.

SINGLE INITIAL CONSONANTS.

60. B, d, l, m, n, p, r, s, t underwent no change: ben, don, loc, me, nau, pauc, rius, si, tü.

1. For cremetar < *tremitare, see Meyer-Lübke, Einf., § 194. For granolha < *ranuččila, see Körting, ranuculus.

61. C, c', f, g, g', β , y suffered some change. C, g must be distinguished from c', g': § 55, C, G.

C, g before o, u remained unchanged: colorem > color, cura > cura; gula > gola, gutta > gota. Before a they changed only in the north and northeast, where they became (perhaps from the 7th to the 9th century) respectively tš and dž: <math>campus > camps champs; gaudēre > gauzir iauzir.

C' > ts, which just before and during the literary period was reduced to s: cælum > cel sel, cīvitātem > ciutat ciptat siptat. Eor g', see Y.

Y, comprising Latin dy, g', gy, j, and z, became dž (except in Béarn, where it remained y): $diurn\bar{a}lem > i$ ornal (yornal), $de\bar{o}(r)sum > i$ os; $g \bar{e}lus > g els$, $gent\bar{a}lem > gentil (yentil)$, $g \bar{y} r \bar{a} r e$ > girar; jam > ia, $j \bar{o}cum > i$ oc (yoc), $j \bar{u} v \bar{e} nem > i$ ove; $z e l \bar{o} s u s$ > gelos.

F remained unchanged, except in Béarn and a part of Gascony, where it became h: famem > fam ham, fidem > fe he, focum > foc huc, folia > fuelha huelha.

 $\beta > v$ (the dentilabial spirant), except in Béarn, Gascony, and parts of Languedoc, where it became b: $v \check{e}nit > ven$ be, $v\check{e}ntum > vent$ bent, $v\check{e}rsus$ (§ 55, R)> ves bes, $v\bar{o}s > vos$ bos.

PROVENÇAL PHONOLOGY.

1. In a few words β , owing to Germanic influence, was replaced by w > gw: vadum + watan > gua, vastare + wôst > guastar. So vagīna > guaina, Vasconia > Gasconha. Cf. gw below.

INITIAL GROUPS.

62. There are three classes of groups: those ending in 1 or r, those ending in w, and those beginning with s: —

(1) Bl, br, cl, cr, dr, gl, gr, pl, pr, tr underwent no change: blasphemāre > blasmar, brēvem > breu, clarus > clars,crūcem > crotz, drappus > draps, glaciem > glatz, gradum >gra, plēnum > plen, precāre > pregar, trans > tras. Gras isfrom grassus, a fusion of crassus and grossus. For grocs < $<math>\kappa\rho\delta\kappaos$ see § 57, κ .

(2) Gw (Germanic w) and kw (Latin qu) were reduced, perhaps in the roth century, to g and k, except in the west, where the w was retained: wahta > gaita guaita, warjan >garir guarir, wera > gerra guerra, wisa > gisa guisa; quando > can quan, quare > car quar. It should be noted that the u was commonly kept in the spelling (especially before e and i) after it had ceased to be pronounced, gu and qu being regarded merely as symbols for "hard" g and c. For cinc < quinque, see § 87, kw. Sw remained in suavem > suau.

(3) To groups beginning with s a vowel had been prefixed in Vulgar Latin (§ 55, S); this vowel appears in Provençal as e. Sc'apparently did not occur in any popular word; sl early became scl; the other groups (sc, scl, scr, sp, st, str) remained unchanged, except that in the north and northeast sc > stš before a: scala > escala eschala, schõla > escola, slahta > * sclatta > esclata, scriběre > escriure, spīna > espina, stare > estar, stringěre > estrenher.

PROVENÇAL PHONOLOGY.

MEDIAL CONSONANTS.

63. (1) It is well to note at the outset that when, through the fall of an unaccented vowel (\S 51), an early Provençal b, d, dz, dž, g, z, or ž was made final or contiguous to a final s, it became voiceless: $\delta pus > 0$ bus > 0 bs 0 ps, $\delta rbum > 0$ rbu > 0 rb 0 rp: datum > dadu > dad dat, viridem virdem > verde > verd vert; <math>fretium > predzu > predz prets (written <math>fretz), $v\delta cem > vodze > vodz vots (written <math>votz$); medium > meyu medžu > medž metš (written <math>meg or mech); $am\bar{c}us > amigus > amigs amics, <math>largum > largu > larg larc; <math>r\bar{s}um > rizu > riz$ ris; basium > bažu > baiž baiš (bais). The combination tžs, however, loses either its second or its third element: *gaudios > gautšs > gautšs > nuetš or nuets (nuegz). For apud > ab ap am an, see \S 65, P, 2.

(2) Under the same conditions, y became i: video > veyo
 > vey vei, pėjus > peyus > peys pieis.

(3) Under the same conditions, ϑ , coming from intervocalic d, fell when final, but became t before s: *audit* > auði > auði au; *crūdus* > cruðus > cruds crüts. So *crūdum* > crü, *fidem* > fe, *fraudem* > frau, *gradum* > gra, *nīdum* > ni, *nōdum* > no, *pĕdem* > pe, *sapidum* > sabe, *tĕpidum* > tebe; *grados* > grats, *nōdus* > nots, *nūdus* > nüts, *pĕdes* > pets. The two sets of forms influenced each other: hence *degras*, *fes*,¹ *nis*, *pes*, etc.; *crut*, *grat*, *not*, *nut*,¹ etc.

(4) Under the same conditions, β , coming from v or from intervocalic b, became u if preceded by a vowel, but fell if preceded by a consonant: $bibit > be\beta i > be\beta$ beu, $v\bar{v}vit >$ $\beta i\beta i > \beta i\beta$ viu, claves > cla\betaes > cla\betas claus, $v\bar{v}vus > \beta i\beta us >$

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¹ Fes, nut, which quite supplanted the regular forms, perhaps show the influence of res, mut.

 $\beta i\beta s$ vius; salvet>sal, salvum>sal, servit>sier, nervos> ners, salvus>sals, servus>sers. Sometimes, however, final β preceded by a consonant, instead of falling, became f: salvet>salf, salvum>salf, servit>sierf, volvit>volf; it may be that these are the only regular forms for cons. + β when final, and that sal, sier are due to the analogy of sals, siers.

(5) Under the same conditions, final n, if preceded by a vowel, was kept in the extreme west, parts of the north, and all the southeast and east, but fell everywhere else; n before s was generally kept only in the southeast and east: bene > be ben, canem > ca can, sonum > so son¹; bonus > bos bons, mansiones > maisos maisons. If the n was preceded by a consonant (r), the fall seems to have been even commoner: cornu > cor corn, torno > tor torn; diurnus > iors iorns. Provençal n coming from nn never falls: annus > ans.

(6) Under the same conditions, g, representing original c or g, became c after o or u, and after other vowels either became c or was changed to i (which fused with a preceding i): focum > foc, locus > locs, paucum > pauc, Hugo > Uc; Aureliacum > Aurelhac, dico > dic di, Henricum > Enric Enri,* trago > trac trai. The forms with c are the commoner;they have been most persistent in the west.

(7) The vocalization of 1 before s (malus > maus) is a different phenomenon from the foregoing, and will be treated by itself: § 65, L.

(8) An m or an n that becomes contiguous to final s often develops into mp or nt, but oftener (judging from the spellings) does not: nimis>nemps, rēmos>remps; annos> ans anz, gēnus>ges gens genz.

¹ By analogy of such double forms, n is sometimes added to a few words ending in a vowel: $f\tilde{u}it > fo$ fon, $pr\bar{o} > pro pron$.

PROVENÇAL PHONOLOGY.

(9) Between a liquid or a nasal and a final s, a b or a p generally fell, unless supported by the analogy of a form in which the b or p was final: $ambos > ams \ ambs$, corpus > cors, $torpus > tems \ temps$; cf. balbs (balb), orbs (orb).

1. The d, n, t of the proclitics ad, quid, in, aut, et will be treated under Final Consonants.

64. Final ts from any source, in Provence, Limousin, and a part of Languedoc and Gascony, was reduced, during the literary period, to s: $am\bar{a}tis$ amatz amas, $hab\bar{e}tis$ avetz aves, $d\bar{i}cit$ ditz dis, grandes granz grans, latus latz las, $pr\bar{e}tium$ pretz pres. On the other hand, in a part of Limousin (especially in Limoges), and also in Dauphiné, -ts, in the second person plural of verbs, became t: habētis > avet.

SINGLE MEDIAL CONSONANTS.

65. The single medial consonants will now be considered separately, in alphabetical order: —

 β , coming from b or v, became v; except in the west and a part of the centre, where, if it remained intervocalic, it changed to b: habētis > avetz abetz, debēre > dever deber, faba > fava faba; avārum > avar, astīva > estiva, brěvem > breu,¹ clavem > clau, dīe Jövis > diious, lěvat > leva, novělla > novela nabera (Gascon), vīvus > vius. When the preceding or following vowel was o or u, a β before the accent fell in most dialects, being fused with the vowel: abŭndare > aondar abondar, gŭbërnare > goernar governar, proclitic ŭbi > o, pröbare > proar, sŭbinde > soen soven soben, tribūtum > treüt; Lŭdovīcus > Lozoics, Provincia > Proensa Provensa, nověllum > noel novel, nověmbrem > noembre novembre, pavõnem > paon, pavõrem > paor (cf. § 55, V).

¹ Cf. § 63, (4).

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1. The perfect endings -avi etc., -ivi etc. had lost their v in Latin. For avia, etc., see § 87, β .

2. Abans, beside avanz, avan < ab ante, apparently shows the influence of Pr. ab = apud. Abet < abi tem (§ 40, 1) is unexplained: cf. Italian abete. Abora is a Provençal compound of ab and ora. Trap, beside trau < trabem, is doubtless from the nominative traps < trabs, which seems to have been differentiated in meaning from the V. L. nominative trabis.

3. Brey, grey, ney, beside breu < brevem, greu < *grevem, neu < nivem (cf. § 25, 1, e), have been subjected to the attraction of grey < grevem, ley < legem. Greug is a post-verbal noun from greuiar < *greveiare.

4. Massis < massivus, natiz = natius < natīvus seem to have been influenced by mestis < mixtīcius.

5. Paziment = pavamen owes its z perhaps to the analogy of aizimen.

6. In purely learned words, b and v were written as in Latin: diabol, diluvi.

C, from the 4th to the 6th century, was voiced to g, and then developed like any other g. See G.

I. After au, apparently, c did not change: *auca (<*avica <avis)> auca, pauca >pauca, rauca >rauca, *traucare(?<*trabucare)>traucar. Cf. § 65, P, 3.

2. In purely learned words, c remained unchanged: vocal. Alucar aluchar, aluc seem to be learned formations patterned after antelucānus and Low Latin lucānus.

 \checkmark C', when it became contiguous to a consonant, through the fall of the unaccented vowel of the penult, was reduced to i: *cŏcĕre>coire, dīcĕre>diire dire, dīcčtis>ditz, facĕre>faire, facĭmu(s)>faim, facĭtis>faitz, fēcĕram> feira, fēcĕrunt> feiron, gracĭlem>graile. When it remained intervocalic, it was assibilated during the transition period (§ 55, C); in most of the Provençal territory it became dz, which during the literary period was simplified to z; but in some dialects of the south and the northwest it resulted in idz (later iz), an i-glide having developed before the consonant while it was still palatal: aucčilum>auzel, jacēre>iazer, līcēre>lezer, $l\bar{u}c\bar{c}re >$ lüzer lüzir lüisir, $plac\bar{c}re >$ plazer plaizer; $cr\bar{u}cem >$ croz croiz crois (see §§ 63, 64), $d\bar{i}cere >$ dízer, $d\bar{i}cit >$ ditz dis, $d\bar{u}cit >$ dütz düs, facit > fatz fas, jacet > iatz ias iays, pacem > patz pas pais, placet > platz plas plais, $ver\bar{a}cem >$ verais, $v\bar{o}cem >$ votz voiz.

I. Aucel, beside auzel, perhaps belongs to a dialect in which c' was not voiced after au: cf. C, I. See § 80, Bc'.

2. Iasser, beside iazer, seems to be due to ias < jacet and iassa < jaceat.

- 3. For desma deima, see S, I.
- 4. In purely learned words, c'>ts: actdum > aci.

D, in a part of the west, remained unchanged; elsewhere, during the Vulgar Latin period, it opened into ∂ , which fell in the 11th century and earlier in parts of the north and east, and in the rest of the Provençal territory became z as early as the first part of the 12th century: *audīre*>auzir auir audir,¹ *audit*>au,² *cadit*>ca, *crudālem*>cruzel cruel crudel, *fīdat*>fia, **gaudo*>gau, *hŏrrīda*>oreza, *hŏrrīdum*>ore, *laudo*>lau, *alauda*>lauzeta laudeta, *rīdat*>ria, *tradēre*> trazir trair tradir, *vidēre*>vezer ver veder, *videt*>ve. When ∂ became contiguous to a following consonant (except final s), it changed to i: *cupīditātem*>cobeitat, *divīdēre*>divire,⁸ *traditōrem*>traidor.⁴

I. Crey, beside cre < crēdo, follows $dei < d\bar{e}beo$, vei < video. Mercey, beside merce < mercēdem, shows the influence of grey < gregem, $lei < l\bar{e}gem$, and perhaps French fei < fidem. Cf. β , (3).

2. Grau = gra < gradum, $niu = ni < n\overline{n}dum$ belong to the Catalan dialect, in which ∂ fell before the 8th century: $gradum > gra\partial u > gra-u$ > grau, the u being preserved through combining into a diphthong with the a.

² Cf. § 63, (3).

¹Also *auvir*, probably a local development of *auir* or *auzir*; and *aurir*, doubtless from *auzir* in a dialect that confuses r and z. See R, 2 and S, 2.

⁸ The i from *ð* fuses with the preceding i.

⁴ Trachor has been influenced by trach, past participle of traire.

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3. In purely learned words, d remained: odi < ödium.

F is very rare (cf. § 59). The few examples appear to show that f (presumably in the 6th century or earlier) became β , and then developed like any other β (see β): Stěphănum > Esteve, co(n) fortāre? > * co β ortar > * coortar > conortar (through the common use of the double forms, con, co-), gryphum>griu, raphănum>rave rafe, * refusāre> rehusar refusar, * prefündum (= pro-)> preon. Nevertheless, cofin $c \delta ph num$, defors < de föris, grifo, profieg < profectum, rafe, would seem to indicate that in some words, possibly less popular at the outset, f was retained.

1. In purely learned words, f was kept: antifona, Caifas, philozophia. G, representing original c and g, had a varied development.¹ For the fall of g in some words in Vulgar Latin, see § 55, G.

(1) Before a, g remained in the greater part of the territory, but in the north and east it early became y; and this y was generally retained in the eastern dialects (often fusing with a preceding i), while in most of the northern it developed into dž (cf. Y): $am\bar{i}ca > amiga$ amiia amia, $d\bar{i}cam > diga$ dia, $m\bar{i}ca > miga$ miia mia,² $pac\bar{a}re > pagar$ paiar, $prec\bar{a}re >$ pregar preiar; $castig\bar{a}re > castigar$ castiar, $leg\bar{a}lem >$ leial leyal lial, $lig\bar{a}men >$ liam, $l\bar{i}g\bar{a}tum >$ legat liat, plaga > plaga plaia, $reg\bar{a}lem >$ reial, $r\bar{u}ga >$ rüa.

(2) Before o and u (ü), g was preserved, except in a few words which (doubtless in Vulgar Latin times) lost it either in all or in many dialects: $ac\bar{u}tum > ag\ddot{u}t$, $sec\ddot{u}ndum > segon$, $sec\bar{u}rus > seg\ddot{u}rs$; $*a(u)g\bar{u}rium > ag\ddot{u}r$ a $\ddot{u}r$, $a(u)g\ddot{u}stum >$

¹Intervocalic c and g have been studied by H. Sabersky, Zur provenzalischen Lautlehre, 1888, pp. 8-19.

² Mica micha are from *mīcca = mīca + cīccum.

agọst¹ ahọst, proclitic igo > eu, *fagottum > fagot, figūra >figüra, Hugonem > Ugo. For a g that becomes final or contiguous to final s, see § 63, (6): $am\bar{i}cus > amics amis, Auri <math>\bar{a}cum > Auriac, cocum (= coquum) > coc, jocus > iocs, Ludo$ vicum > Lozoic Lozoi, prěco > prec; castigo > chastic chasti.

(3) Between the last two vowels of a proparoxytone, g, early in the Provençal period, became y, which developed into dž before the literary epoch; cf. § 49, (4): clěricum >clerge, * coraticum > coratge, dominicum > dimenge, manica > mania, mědicum > mege, měnăchum > monge, * paraticum > paratge, viaticum > viatie. In some dialects, however, the vowel of the penult, after liquids and nasals, fell too early for the g to become y: clergue,² dimergue, mongue.

I. Amiu, chastiu belong to the dialect of Forez; so perhaps fau < fagum, preu < preco. These forms indicate a very early fall of the g in the dialect to which they belong. Cf. § 51, 3.

2. In purely learned words, Latin g remains unchanged : paganõrum > paganor.

G' became y during the Vulgar Latin period (§ 55, G). See Y.

I. In purely learned words the letter g was retained, but it was doubtless pronounced dž: *astrologia*.

L remained: colorem > color, male > mal, *volere (=velle) > voler. Before final s, l became u in most dialects, in some as early as the roth century: malos > maus, talis > taus; l was written, however, long after l had been vocalized. Under the influence of forms in which -ls > -us, final l became u in the southwest and in some other regions: Aprilem > abriu. Cf. § 74, (2).

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¹ For the reduction of au to a see § 41.

² Clerc is from * clercum, which must have existed contemporaneously with clericum.

I. For Gascon 1>r, see § 10.

2. Orifan, beside olifan < elephantem, is probably French.

L' will be considered, as ly, under Groups, § 73, Ly.

M remained: amāre > amar, homo > om, timorem > temor.

1. Occasionally final -am rhymes with -an (afan: fam, portam: avan); this would seem to indicate an indistinct pronunciation of the final nasal in some dialects. Cf. $aven = avem < hab\bar{e}mu(s)$ in the Nobla Leyczon. Cf. § 167, 2.

N remained: $b \delta nas > bonas$, $don \bar{a}re > donar$, $l \bar{u}na > l \bar{u}na$. For n final or contiguous to final s, see § 63, (5): $f \bar{n}nis > fis$ fins, panem > pa pan.

I. In canorgue, dimergue, morgue, beside canonge, dimenge, monge, the r may be explained by the analogy of *clergue*.

2. Menhs meins, beside regular mens < minus, show the influence of the alternative forms genhs geins and gens from ingenium (see § 73, Ny).

3. Iassey (= iasse, the latter part of which may be from exin = exinde), tey (= te < tenet), used by Marcabru, are doubtless due either to a mistaken imitation of conventional borderland forms (see § 25, 3) or to the analogy of crei = cre < credo (crei itself being due to the analogy of dei < debeo, vei < video).

N' will be considered, as ny, under Groups, § 73, Ny.

P, from the 4th to the 6th century, was voiced to b: capillum > cabel, $r\bar{i}pa$ > riba, * sapēre (= sapěre) > saber, trepalium > trebalh; capit > cap (§ 63), sapis > saps.

I. In some borderland dialects p > v, as in French: saver. Evescat, evesque, beside bisbat, bisbe, are French.

2. Apud, used as a proclitic, became for some reason in Vulgar Latin *apu, which developed regularly into *abu and, after the fall of intertonic vowels, ab. This ab assimilated its b more or less to a following consonant, becoming ap before voiceless consonants, am before nasals; am, used before dentals, became an: hence we have four forms, ab, ap, am, an. Amb seems to be a fusion of am and ab; when used before a consonant with which mb did not readily combine, it expanded into ambe. See Elise Richter, Zs, XXVI, 532.

3. In some dialects, apparently, p was not voiced after au: sapuërunt *sapuërunt *saupërunt > saubron saupron. Cf. § 65, C, I.

4. In purely learned words, p remains: epifania.

R remained: $am\bar{a}ra > amara$, $dur\bar{a}re > d\bar{u}rar$, erat > era. Final rs was reduced to s, in most dialects, during and after the literary period: $pri\bar{o}res > priors prios$ (*Girart*); the reduction apparently began in Limousin as early as the 12th century (Bertran de Born rhymes ios and flors).

1. Final r began to fall in many dialects in the 14th century. At present it has disappeared all through the south and west: amörem > amou, flörem > flou.

2. In some dialects (especially those of Gard and Hérault) intervocalic r and z were confused, probably during the literary period: gyrãre > girar gisar; conversely audīre > auzir aurir. Cf. Revue des langues romanes, XL, 49, 121.

S was voiced to z, probably from the 4th to the 6th century: pausa > pausa, presentem > presen; risum > ris (§ 63).

I. An s that became contiguous to n was changed, in a few dialects, to r: almosna almorna, disnar dirnar. In modern Limousin and some of the dialects of Dauphiné, Languedoc, and Gascony, s has disappeared before nasals: asne ane, caresma carema, disnar dinar (so blasmar blamar, desma dema); the fall began during the literary period. S before a consonant in many of the modern dialects, and final s in some, has become i: asne aine, caresma careima (so perhaps desma deima, pruesme prueime); some traces of this change occur in texts of the literary period. Cf. Zs., XXIII, 413. Isla, in Limousin, became ilha (perhaps through iyla): cf. Zs., XXIII, 414. Cf. § 78.

2. In some southeastern dialects intervocalic z after au has changed to v: causa cauva (so auzir auvir); possibly the auvent of the Boeci, v. 23, is to be connected with this.

T, from the 4th to the 6th century, was voiced to d: $am\bar{a}ta >$ amada, $nat\bar{a}lis >$ nadals, $servit\bar{o}rem >$ servidor; $hab\bar{e}tis >$ avetz aves avet (§§ 63, 64), latus > latz las, natum > nat. For a t which became contiguous to r ($am\bar{a}tor >$ amaire), see § 52, (1), and § 70, Tr.

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I. In some dialects of the south and southeast, final t fell shortly after the literary period: amātum > amat ama.

2. Totus, in Gaul, became tottus as early as the 4th century: hence Pr. tota totas. For meteis < meteipse see § 131, (2).

3. Espaza (beside espada) < spatha, was perhaps influenced in its pronunciation by the spelling of the Latin word. Ez, coming from et before a vowel, shows the influence of az (< ad + vowel) and quez (< quid + vowel). Grazal, 'grail', is perhaps a cross between * cratella < crater and gradale, 'service-book'; so grazalet. Grazir grazire (cf. agradar) is perhaps altered from an earlier * grazar < * gratiare. Mezeis < met-ipse, mezesmes, meesmes (beside medesmes) < *met-ipsimus have been subjected to the analogy of ez < et and quez < quid or of id ipsum: § 131, (2).

4. Appoestat must be French.

5. Calabre < * catabolum seems to have been assimilated to Calabria.

6. In purely learned words, t remains: eternal.

W will be considered, as gw, under Groups, § 72, β w.

X is a symbol for ks: see Groups, § 79, Ks.

X, representing Latin dy, g', gy, j, and z (cf. 55, G, Y; 57, Z) had a varied development.

(1) When it became contiguous to a following consonant
(§§ 45, 49), it changed to i: adjutāre > ayudāre > ay'dar > aidar, medietātem > meitat; cōgitāre > cüidar, frīgēre > frire, lēgēre > leyre, propaginem > probaina, rigida > reida, * tragēre > traire; bajūlus > bailes.

(2) When it remained intervocalic, it became dž in most of the territory, but in the northeast and parts of the north it was not changed: *audiam* > auia, *in-ŏdiare* > enoiar, *invĭdia* > enveia, *invĭdiōsus* > enveios enveyos, * gladia > glaya, *mediānum* > meian, * pŏdiāre > poiar, radiāre > raiar, sordīdior > sordeier, vīdeat > veia; fragīlem > fragel; * exagiāre > assatiar essaiar essayar, corrīgia > correia correya, fagea > faia faya, regionem > reio; dīe Jŏvís > diious, major > maier, pĕjor > pieier, pējorem > peior, trŏja > troia; baptizāre > bateiar. For a dž or a y that became final or contiguous to final s, see § 63, (1), (2): audio > auch, in ŏdio > enuęg (plural enuętz enuęg) enoi, gaudium > gauch, gladium > glai, mědium > męg mei, hŏdie > oi, pŏdium > puęg poi, radium > rai; fŭgit > füg füi, grěgem > gręy, lēgem > lęg (pl. leitz) lei, lěgit > lięg, magis mais,¹ rēgem > rei, *tragit > trai; exagium > essai; pějus > pieis.

(3) Before accented e or i, y disappeared (doubtless in Vulgar Latin: § 55, G), except in some western dialects, where it became dž: vagīna > guaïna, * legīre (= lěgěre) > legir, ² magister > maestre maiestre magestre, <math>* pagē(n)sis > paes pages, regīna > reïna, sagĭtta > saeta saieta sageta.

I. Detz ditz < digitus are irregular and unexplained. The word is irregular in some other Romance languages, notably in Italian. Cf. Gröber's Grundriss, I, p. 507.

2. Glavi, beside glai (and learned glazi) < gladium, is supposed by some to show the influence of Celtic cládibo. Cf. Körting; also H. Schuchardt, Zs., XXV, 345.

3. Messér seems to be a contraction (due to proclitic use) of *messeyer =mes, 'my', + *seyer? < *séyor = sénior (cf. A. Lindström, L'analogie dans la déclinaison des substantifs latins en Gaule, 1897-8, pp. 292-3).

4. In purely learned words, di, g, gi, z are retained, the g being pronour ced presumably as dž, the z as z: odi, fragil, regio, canonizar.

MEDIAL GROUPS.

66. Medial groups may be conveniently classified as follows: — A. Double Consonants (1); B. Groups of Dissimilar Consonants: groups ending in 1 (2), groups ending in r (3), groups ending in w (4), groups ending in y (5), groups beginning with l, m, n, r, or s and not ending in l, r, w, or y

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¹ Magis was probably reduced to mais in Vulgar Latin.

²Legir may have been reconstructed on the basis of leg < legit.

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(6), all other groups (7). They will be treated in the order indicated.¹

1. It should be noted that the prefixes ad-, sub- regularly assimilate their d or b to the following consonant: *ad-ripāre > arribar, sub-venire > sovenir. Sosrire, sosterrar, sostraire show a substitution of prefix, due, no doubt, to the analogy of sospirar, sostener.

I. DOUBLE CONSONANTS.

67. In general, the double consonants became single, in the 9th or 10th century (perhaps earlier before the accent), but underwent no other change save those described in §§ 63, 64: *abbātem*>abat, *siccum*>sec, *rĕddo*>ret, *affībulāre*> afiblar, *aggregāre*>agregar, *flamma*>flama, *pĕnna*>pena, *cappa*>capa, *passum*>pas,² m*ŭttum*>mot, *advenīre* **avvenīre*> avenir.

(1) Cc before a, in the east and northeast, became tš; elsewhere, c; $b\ddot{u}cca > boca$ boca, vacca > vaca vacha.

(2) Ll, in some southern dialects, became l'; elsewhere, l: capillum > cabel cabelh, gryllum > gril grilh, mantellum >mantel mantelh, villanus > vilas vilhas. It is possible, however, that -llī regularly became l' in Limousin, while ll before other vowels was not palatalized: caballum > caval, caballī >cavalh; illī > ilh, illos > els; this would account in part for the frequent occurrence of lh in the poems. For final ls and l, see § 65, L: illos > els eus, vallem > val vau. For Gascon l > r, see § 10: appellat > apela apera.

(3) Rr, when intervocalic, seems generally to have been distinguished from r during the literary period and later: cur-

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¹For the groups ending in y, cf. L. J. Juroszek, *Ein Beitrag zur Geschichte der jotazierten Konsonanten in Frankreich*, in Zs., XXVII, 550 ff. The groups ending in y and those containing c or g have been studied by H. Sabersky, *Zur provenzalischen Lautlehre*, 1888.

² S is generally written ss between vowels, to distinguish it from s = z.

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rěre > corre, * *corrŭptiāre* > corrossar, *errāre* > errar, *těrra* > terra. Occasionally, however, rr is found in rhyme with r.

2. GROUPS ENDING IN L.

68. The groups of two consonants will be treated in alphabetical order. It will be seen that bl, rl, sl remained unchanged; ml developed a glide consonant between its two members; pl, tl, β l and yl respectively voiced, assimilated, and vocalized their first element; while cl, gl were fused into l'. For an explanation of this last phenomenon, see § 79.

Bl>bl: $n \check{e} b \check{u} la$ > nebla, * $ob l \bar{i} t \bar{a} r e$ > oblidar, sabulõnem > sablon.¹

 $\beta l > ul: fabŭla * fa\betala > faula, sibilāre * si\betalāre > siular, tabŭla * taβla > taula.$

Cl>l': genŭcŭlum>genolh, ŏcŭlum>olh, sĭtŭla *sicla²> selha, větŭla věcla²> velha. In learned words we find gl, cl:
 *e(c)clěsia>gleiza, joculārem>ioglar, sæcŭlum>segle secle.
 C'l>il: gracilem>graile.

Dl>dl, which during the literary period became ll and then 1: $m \delta d \tilde{u} l u m > *$ modle molle.

Gl > I': vig(i)lat > velha. Teula < teguila is irregular: cf. Archivio glottologico italiano, XIII, 439, 459.

Ml>mbl: similāre>semblar, trēmŭlat>trembla. In sembrar we find an r<l due perhaps to the analogy of membrar<memorāre.

XPl>bl: copula>cobla, duplum>doble. Learned words have pl: duplicar.

Rl>rl: Carolus>Carles, horologium>orloi, *paraulare> parlar.

¹ Most of the words in this category are semi-learned: cf. *fabla* and *faula*. See § 55, B.

2 See § 47, (2).

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 $Sl > sl: \bar{\iota}(n) s \bar{\iota}(a) > isla$. For *ilha*, see § 65, S, 1.

Tl>tl, which during the literary period became ll and then l: $r \check{o} t \check{u} l u m$ > rotle rolle, $spath \bar{u} l a$ > espatla espalla espala. In really popular words tl had become cl in Vulgar Latin.¹

Yl>il: bajŭlus>bailes. Cf. § 65, Y, (1).

69. A group of three consonants remained unchanged, except that double consonants became single: *ambulāre*> amblar, *implēre*> emplir, *avūncūlus*> avoncles, *circūlus*> cercles, *mascūlus*> mascles, * *afflammāre*> aflamar, *inflāre*> enflar, *üngūla*> ongla, *emplastrum*> emplastre.

I. Selcle, beside cercle, seems to show an assimilation of the r to the l of the next syllable. Empastre, beside emplastre, has been influenced by pasta. Emblar is probably from V. L. *imbolare = involare.

3. GROUPS ENDING IN R.

70. The groups of two consonants will be treated in alphabetical order. It will be seen that br, gr, lr, nr generally remained unchanged; mr, sr, zr (and sometimes lr, nr) developed a glide consonant; cr, pr voiced, and β r, c'r, dr, tr, yr vocalized their first element.

Br > br: fabrum > fabre, febrem > febre, lib(e)rum > libre.

 $\beta r > ur: biběre > beure, débēr' hábeo > de\beta'r-áyo > deurái,$ faber > faure;² *mŏvěre (= mŏvēre) > moure, plŏvěre > ploure.

Cr > gr: acrem > agre, lacrima > lagrema, lücrum > logre,macrum > magre, sacrāre > sagrar, sõcrum > sogre.⁸ In latelogarned words we find cr: secret.

AC'r>ir: cocere>coire, dicere>dire, ducere>duire, facere> faire. Cf. § 49, (1).

Dr>ðr>ir: divīděre>devire, quadrum>caire, vídēr' há-

¹ See § 47, (2).

² We find also faur: cf. § 52, (1), 1.

⁸ Sozer is from sŏcĕrum: cf. § 49, (1).

beo>veð'r-áyo>veirái. After au, apparently, ð simply disappeared: *clauděre*>claure. Late learned words have dr: *quadrupedi*.

! Gr, in popular words, was reduced to r in Vulgar Latin in parts of the Empire: $fra(g)r\bar{a}re > *frarar *flarar flazar, int \tilde{e}(g)$ $rum > enter entier, <math>n\tilde{i}(g)rum > ner nier, 1 pere(g)r\bar{n}num > pe$ $leri, <math>p\tilde{i}(g)r\tilde{i}tia > pereza;$ these forms occur in Gascony, Rouergue, and Limousin, but forms with gr are found in the same region. Elsewhere, in these same words, and everywhere, in more bookish words, gr remained in Vulgar Latin; this gr was kept in most of the Provençal territory, but was changed to ir in Dauphiné, Auvergne, and Languedoc: * degrådum > degra, fragrāre > flairar, integrāre > enteirar, int \tilde{g} rum > entegre enteir, $\tilde{n}gr\bar{e}sc\bar{e}re > negrezir, nigrum > negre$ $neir, <math>\tilde{p}eregr\bar{n}num > pelegri, p \tilde{i}gr \tilde{i}tia > pigreza.$ Purely learned words have gr everywhere: agricultura.

G'r: see Yr.

Lr usually remained unaltered, but in some dialects became ldr⁸: válēr' hábeo > valrai valdrai, * vólēr' hábeo > volrai voldrai.

Mr>mbr: caměra>cambra, memorāre>membrar, nůměrum>nombre.

Nr usually remained unaltered, but in some dialects became ndr[§]: cinërem > cenre cendre, die Věněris > divenres divendres, in-gënerāre > engenrar, Henrīcum > Enric, expôněre > esponre espondre, *gëněrem (=gěnus) > genre, gěněrum > genre gendre,

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¹ For the vowel of ner nier, see § 25, 1, (e).

² Enteir, neir seem to have lost final e under the influence of numerous adjectives in -er -ier -ieir < -arium.

⁸ In the modern dialects the d is probably commoner than it was in the old literary language; it occurs in Bordeaux, Languedoc, and Provence.

honorāre > onrar ondrar, prěnděre > penre, tenēr' habeo > tenrai tendrai, venīr' habeo > venrai vendrai.

Pr>br: capra>cabra, c μ per \bar{a} re>cobrar, erip \bar{p} re>erebre, $\bar{o}p\bar{e}$ ra>obra, pauper>paubre, * p \bar{p} per \bar{a} ta>pebrada, rec $\bar{i}p\bar{e}$ re> recebre, s $\bar{\mu}$ per \bar{a} re>sobrar, s $\bar{\mu}$ per>sobre. Purely learned words have pr: caprin. It is uncertain whether paupre (beside the usual paubre) is a Latinism or represents some dialect in which au prevented voicing.

 $frightarrow Str: *\check{ess\check{ere}} (=\check{esse}) > estre.$ For esser, see § 49, (2). $frischer Str: *\check{ess\check{ere}} (=\check{esse}) > estre.$ For esser, see § 49, (2). frischer Stringtarrow String

↓ Yr>ir: frīgĕre>frire, legĕre>leyre.

 $+Zr > zdr: m\bar{i}serunt + *m\bar{i}sserunt > *mezron mesdron.$

1. Redebre (beside rezemér) < redimere has apparently been influenced by recebre. The Burgundian sor for sobre comes from the prefix sür-(sür-rīdēre, etc.). Perri < * pētrīnum is probably French.

71. A group of three consonants nearly always remained unchanged, except that double consonants became single: $\ddot{u}mbra > ombra, arb \ddot{o}rem > arbre, sep \ddot{u}lcrum > sepulcre, * can$ $c(e)r \ddot{o}sus > cancros, * add <math>\ddot{u}r \ddot{e}ctum > adreit, f \ddot{u}nd \ddot{e}re > fondre,$ $ard \breve{e}re > ardre, * offer \ddot{r}re > offrir, * Hungaria > Ongria, r \ddot{u}m p \breve{e}re$ $> rompre, appr \vspace{-1.5}sum > apres, asprum > aspre, <math>\ddot{u}ltra > oltra,$ intr \"{a}re > entrar, $mo(n) str \ddot{a}re > mostrar, m \vspace{-1.5}ttere > metre. L\beta r$ and rg'r, however, regularly became ldr and rdr, and llr $became ldr to the same extent as lr (q. v.): <math>abs olv \breve{e}re >$ absoldre (absolvre is probably a Latinism), $p \breve{u}lv \breve{e}rem > poldre;$ * $d\bar{e}-\bar{e}r'$ gere > derdre; $toll \breve{e}re >$ tolre toldre. Rmr became rbr in marmor>marbre (also marme). Prendre often became penre (perhaps to distinguish it from pendre)through the analogy of genre gendre, etc.; the first r havingbeen lost by dissimilation.

I. The four-consonant group sbtr is reduced to str in prestre < pr is perhaps a proclitic syncopation of a V.L. *preßiter. Cf. § 78, I.

4. GROUPS ENDING IN W.

72. This class includes not only Latin gu, qu, but all combinations of consonant + u, cf. § 40, (2). A w thus evolved seems to have developed like Germanic w (cf. § 56, W): it became gw (assimilating the preceding consonant, unless that consonant was a liquid or a nasal), and then was reduced, before the literary period, to g, cf. § 62, (2). Pw, however, had a quite different history, owing, on the one hand, to the affinity of its two labial elements, and, on the other, to the stability of the voiceless stop, which prevented the assimilation that we find in $\beta w > ww$.

I. G. Körting (Zs., XXII, 258) would explain through the analogy of the perfects in -cui all other perfect forms which in Provençal have g and c corresponding to Latin -ui etc.

 $\beta w > ww > gw > g: habuĭssem > agues, dēbuit > dec (§ 63);$ *co(g)nōvuit (cf. Meyer-Lübke, Gram., II, p. 357) > conoc,*crevuĭstī>creguist, *movuĭsset>mogues, *plŏvuit>ploc. Weseem to have the same combination in Germanic treuwa>tregua trega (treva is probably French).

I. The diphthong of $aic = habu\bar{i}$ is probably not a phonetic development. The first and third persons of the preterit, aic and ac (< habuil), have been differentiated after the pattern of the present -ai and a.

+Dw>gw>g: *seduit>sec.

I. Vezoa < vidua must be an early learned word: veuva is doubtless French.

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Kw>gw>g: antiqua>antiga, equa>ega, equalem>egal(engal has received through a mistake in etymology the prefix en- or $e-\langle in-\rangle$, $n\delta cuit>noc$, placuisti>plaguist, *sequère (=sequi)>segre, *sequire>seguir, tacuissem>tagues.

I. Several words show a different development: cf. Ltblt., XXIV, 335; Zs., XXVIII, 381. In aqua (or acqua) and aqutla (or *acqutla) the first consonant became, for some reason, a spirant, which later changed to i: $a \chi wa > a i wa > a i gaa$, $a \chi wila > a i gaina > a$

 In several words kw was reduced to c (or c') in Vulgar Latin: coquëre (+ còcus) > còcère > cozer, tòrquère *tòrquère (+*tòrco *tòrcunt) >*tòrcère > torser. Cf. § 55, W.

+Lw>lgw>lg: caluit>calc, *toluĭstī>tolguist, valuĭssem >valgues, volučrunt (§ 16, 2)>volgron.

+Nw, ngw, nkw>ngw>ng: těnuit>tenc, *venuisset>vengues; sanguem>sanc; cīnque (=quinque)>cinc.

I. Teuns $< t \bar{e} nuis$ is probably a learned word; the transposition of u and n may have been due originally to a misreading of the letters. *Ianuer, manual,* etc. are learned. *Maneira* is apparently from a Vulgar Latin *man(u)aria from manuarius. For enquerre < inquarrer, see§ 59.

2. Exstinguere (+ * exstingo * exstingunt) > * estingere > estenher.

+ Pw>upw>up>ub: sapuisset> saubes, recipuit> receup.

1. Saupes apparently belongs to a dialect in which au prevented voicing. Cf. § 65, P, 3.

+Rw>rgw>rg: meruit>merc.

Sw seems to have been reduced early to s in consultudinem * costumen > costum (costuma). Consuo apparently became * costo, whence an infinitive * costre or * costre (Pr. cozer, cosir).

+ Tw > dw > gw > g: pŏtuit > poc.

'I. Ba(t)tuo, qua(t)tuor were reduced to batto, *quattor in Vulgar Latin: Pr. bat, quatre.

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5. GROUPS ENDING IN Y.

73. This class contains: 1st, combinations of consonant + y < e or i, cf. § 40, (2); 2d, consonant + g' > y (§ 55, G), the g' having been in some cases always contiguous to the preceding consonant, in others originally separated from it by a vowel; 3d, consonant + g > y, the g representing an original c or g between the last two vowels of a proparoxytone, cf. § 65, G, (3). It does not include dy and gy, which early became y: see § 65, Y. The groups will be considered in alphabetical order:—

Bry > bry in ebriacum > ebriac (iure is probably French).

By was early reduced to y in habeo habeam etc. and debeo debeam etc., partly, no doubt, through the proclitic use of these words, partly under the influence of audio>*auyo audiam>*auya and video>*veyo videam>*veya; this y, like any other medial y (§ 65, Y), became dž or remained y: ai (for some reason there seems to have been no form * ach), aia; dei dech, deia. Aside from these words, $\beta v > udž$ and uy apparently in the north; elsewhere uy, by, vy-uy prevailing in the west, by and vy in the south and east. When the y became final, it changed to i, which, after a consonant, was syllabic. Ex.: abbreviat > abreuia, * aggreviat > agreuia, * alleviat > aleuia, aviolum > aviol aiol, cavea > gabia cauia, labia > lavia-s, * leviarius > leugiers, * rabiam (= rabiem) > rabia rauia,¹ * rabiāre > rabiar, rabiosus > rabios rauios, rū-.beum > rog roi,² * sabium > savi sabi, atavia > tavia, vidŭvium > vezoig bedoi.² In purely learned words, Latin bi, vi, etc., are kept: abiurament, fluvial.

Cc'y: see C'y.

¹ Ratie is perhaps French.

² After o, the u disappears.

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+Cly > l': coclearium > cuilhier.

+Cty>is: factionem> faisso, lectionem> leisso, suspectionem > sospeisso. In purely learned words we find the spellings cti, cci, which doubtless indicate ktsy or ksy: electio, accio. Cf. Ssy.

 \checkmark C'y, cc'y, kwy>ts; this ts, when it remained medial, was reduced, before and during the literary period, to s: bracchia brassa, bracchium>bratz bras (§ 64), faciam>faza fassa, faciem>fatz fas, glaciem>glatz glas¹, laqueāre>lassar, laqueum>latz las, *pčcia>pessa, placeam>plassa. Learned words have zi and ci, doubtless pronounced at first dzi, tsi, later zi, si (cf. A. Horning, Zs., XXIV, 545; XXV, 736): iuzizi iudici, edifici, Grecia. Cf. Pty.

+D-g>dž: jūdico>iütge, mědicum>mege, * sědicum>seie². Dy: see § 55, Y and § 65, Y.

Gdy: see § 80, Gd.

Gy: see § 55, Y and § 65, Y.

Kwy: see Cy.

+Lc'y>lts>uts>us: *calceāre*> caussar. Cf. Lty. See § 74, (2).

-Lg' apparently became ldz udz uz in **fŭlgĕrem* (=*fŭlgur*) > fouzer.

Ll-g' > l' in *colligit* > cuelh. Cf. Ly.

Lly: see Ly.

+Lny>n': balneum>banh.

Lty > lts > uts > us: * altiāre > auçar aussar. Cf. Lc'y. See§ 74, (2).

² Seti (pronounced with two syllables) seems to be an improperly constructed post-verbal noun from assetiar.

¹ Glai is due perhaps to the analogy of ney (§ 65, β , $\dot{3}$), perhaps to such double forms as fatz fai = facit.

Lvy>lby>uby in salvia> saubia (Gascon).

Ly, lly>l': consilium> cosselh, filium> filh, filia> filha, nūllī + vowel> nülh. Learned words have li: familiarmens. Lili liri lire <līlium are doubtless learned; lis is French.

Mby>mby, mdž, and ndž; mdž being the usual form in the literary language: *cambiāre*> camiar caniar cambiar.

Mmy>my, mdž, and ndž: commeātus> comiatz coniatz.

Mny > n' in Limousin and in the extreme east and southwest, elsewhere $nd\check{z}$: somniāre > sonhar soniar. Somni, beside suenh songe, is learned.

Mply>mply in ampliare>ampliar, probably learned.

My > my and n': simia > simia, vindemia > vendemia vendanha.

Nc'y>nts>ns: * Francia> Fransa. Cf. Nty.

Nd-g>ndž: *pěndĭcat>penia, vĭndĭco>venie. Similarly mandūcāre>*mandugare manduyare mandyare>maniar¹.

Ndy>n': * Burgŭndia>Borgonha, verecŭndia>vergonha. Cf. Ny.

N-g > ndž: *excomminico (=excommūnico)> escomenie¹, monachum > monie.

Ng'>n' and ndž: jüngëre>ionher ionger, üngëre>onher onger, plangëre>phanher planger, püngëre>ponher ponger. Angel is probably learned.

Ng'y>ndž: spongia>esponia.

Nty>nts>ns: cantionem> canso, comin(i)tiare> comensar, sperantia> esperansa. Purely learned words have nti: essentia. Cf. Nc'y.

Ny > n': extraneum > estranh, těneo > tenh, věniat > venha.Before or during the literary period final n' or n's lost its

¹Apparently maniar, escomeniar developed in the region where g became y before a: cf. § 65, G, (1).

palatal quality in many dialects: *ingĕnium*>genh gen. If estraniar comes from extraneāre (and not from *extranicāre), it must be a word of later adoption; so estrangier. In sotran <subterraneum there is probably a change of suffix.

Pfy seems to became f in * kupphja > cofa.

Pry probably became regularly bry: capreolum > * cabriel cabirel (cabrel seems to be a new formation from *cabra*). Coyre <? cupreum is unexplained.

Pty>ts, which, when it remained medial, was reduced, before and during the literary period, to s: **captiāre*>cassar, **corrŭptiāre*>corrossar, *něptia*>nessa, **nŏptias* (§ 38, 2)> nossas. Cf. C'y.

Py remained py in the west and a part of the south, and elsewhere became ptš, later tš: apium > ache api, *appropiat(< prope) > apropcha aprocha apropia, sapiam > sapcha sacha sapia, sapientem > sachent sapient, sepia > sepia. If asabentar, 'instruct', comes from sapientem, it has been influenced by saber, saben. *Piion* < pipienem is French. Learned words have pi: copia; but mancipium > mancip massip.

Rc'y>rts (>rs?): urceolum (Zs., XXVI, 668)>orzol.

Rdy>rdi in hördeum>ordi.

R-g>rdž: clěricus> cleries.

Rg' > rdž and rdz (>rz): argëntum > argen, * burgë(n)sis > borges borzes (also borgues, under the influence of borc), $d\bar{e}-\bar{e}rigit > ders$, * $d\bar{e}-\bar{e}r(i)g\check{e}re > derzer$ (also derdre: \$71), sŭrgěre > sorger sorzer, sŭrgit > sortz.

Rny>rn': Arvěrnium>Alvernhe.

Rr-g>rdž: * carricat> caria.

Rry?>rdž in *horrearium?>orgier (cf. Körting).

Rt-g>rdž and rts (>rs): *excorticat>escoria escorsa,

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Rty>rts>rs: *fortiāre>forsar, tertium>terz ters. Convercio is learned.

Rvy > rvy rby: **čěrvia* > cervia cerbia. **†** Ry > r', which developed into ir when it remained medial, but became r at the end of a word¹: **exclariāre* > esclairar, **donatōria* > donadoira, **fĕria* > feira fieira, *fĕriat* > feira, *ma tĕria* > madeira, **mŏriat* > moira, *primaria* > premeira premieira (§ 23, 1), **punitōria* > punidoira, *varia* > vaira, *variāre* > vairar; **a(u)gūrium* > aür, *cŏrium* > cuer, **donatōrium* > donador, *impĕrium* > empier, *mĭnistĕrium* > mestier, **mŏrio* > mor muer, *monastĕrium* > mostier (§ 45, 3), *primarius* > premiers, **punitōrius* > punidors. If the ry is preceded by au, it apparently remains unchanged: *Auriācum* > Auriac (*Zs.*, XXVII, 559). Learned words have *ri*: *bori* > *ebŏreum*, *contrari*.

1. Adjectives in -er (-*ier*) and -or, coming from -arium and $-\bar{o}rium$, regularly have feminines in -eira (-*ieira*) and -oira. By the analogy of the masculine, there is a feminine in -era in parts of the west; by the analogy of the feminine, there is a masculine in -eir in Auvergne. The i of *vair* probably comes from the feminine *vaira* and from the verb *vairar*. The noun *feira* sometimes becomes *fiera* like a feminine adjective.

Sc'y: see Ssy.

Ssy, sc'y, sty > s', which in most of the territory became is, but in the west and the extreme east developed into i(t)'s and (t)'s: *bassiāre > baissar baichar bachar, *angŭstia > engoissa, *ingrŏssiat > engrueissa, fascia > faissa, *grassiāre > graissar, pŏstea > pueissas pueih püch, ūstium > üis.

Sty: see Ssy.

4Sy>z', which in most of the territory became iz, but in parts of the northeast, north, and west developed into i(d)ž and (d)ž, and in some scattered dialects gave y and z: ba-

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¹ The r remained palatal long enough to cause breaking: cf. §§ 30, 37.

sium > bais bai (§ 63), basiare > baisar baiiar baiar bayar basar, quasi + vowel > cais quaish, camisia (cf. Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie, XII, 265) > camiza, cerĕsea (Einf., § 103) > cireiza cirieiia cerieya cerieza, ma(n)sionem > maison maiion maion mayo, occasionem > ochaizo, pre(hen)sionem >preiso (cf. enpreyona, 'imprisons'), quĭd se + vowel > queis, Ger. sazjan > saisir, to(n)sionem > toiso.

 $T-g > d\tilde{z}$: *coraticum > corage, *paraticum > parage, viaticum > viatie.

Try apparently became ir: *atrium*?>aire, *arbitrium*> albire.

Tty>ts>s: *plattěa>plassa.

Ty > apparently t'> d'> generally d'z',¹ which in most of the west and north became dz, but in the south and east developed into idz; dz and idz, when they remained medial, were reduced, before and during the literary period, to z and iz: *altitia > alteza, *bellitia > beleza, malitia > maleza, pigritia > pereza, * prētiat > preza, *rikitia > riqueza; palatium > palatz palaitz palais (§ 64), pūteum > potz püis, prētium > pretz pres, solatium > solatz solas; potionem > pozon poizon, *pretiāre > prezar, rationem > razo raizon, s(t) ationem > sazo saizon. The forms without i prevail in the literary language, and in words in which the dz comes after the accent (especially in the ending -eza) they seem to have encroached largely upon the ground of the others.² According to some philologists, the development of ty differed according to its position before or after the accent: for a brief bibliography of the discussion,

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¹ These sounds lost their palatal quality too early to cause breaking: cf. §§ 30, 37. Cf. *Einf.*, § 133.

² Palaitz, however, is used by Marcabru, A. Daniel, and P. Vidal. *Poizon* occurs in *Flamenca* and in modern Limousin (beside *pozon*), *raizo* is found in the *Boeci* and other texts.

see Zs., XXVII, 689. In learned words we find zi, ci, çi, ti: estimatio, iustizia –icia –ecia –eçia, natio nacio, negoci, servizi –ici (cf. A. Horning, Zs., XXIV, 545, XXV, 736).

1. Palai (beside palatz -aitz -ais) may have been made from palais (used by Bertran de Born and in Flamenca) by dropping the s which was regarded as an inflectional ending. It was perhaps influenced by such words as bais bai: cf. Sy. A clerical Latin * palasium, however, would account, not only for palai palais, but also for French palais and for Italian palagio.

2. Modern poijon (Alps) and rajo (Limousin) have perhaps followed the analogy of such words as maison maijon majon: cf. Sy.

3. Escoisson < exclution seems to follow *escois < exclutio. It was perhaps influenced by conoisson $< co(g)n\bar{o}scunt$.

4. Some of the modern western dialects have d in radon, sadon, etc. = razo, sazo, etc.

6. GROUPS BEGINNING WITH L, M, N, R, OR S.

74. (1) Of the groups beginning with 1 (and not ending in 1, r, w, or y), the following remained unchanged (except that c before a became tš in the north and northwest).—1b, 1c (and llc), 1g (llg), 1m, 1p, 1v: alba > alba; calcāre > calcar, collocāre * colcāre > colcar (-char); collocare * collogare * colgare > colgar; hëlm > elm, ŭlmum > olm; cõlăphum * cõlpum > colp ($\kappa \delta \lambda \pi os$ > golfe is unexplained); calvum > calv (= calf?), salvāre > salvar. Ld, 1s (lls), 1t (llt) were regularly unchanged except for the vocalization of the 1: see below. Lc' (llc') became 1ts, and then the 1 was vocalized: see below. Lc'p became 1p in calce pīsāre > calpisar. Lg', 11g', have been treated in § 73. Lvs, 1vt became 1s, 1t, and then the 1 was vocalized: see below.

+ (2) L became u before the dental consonants d, s, t in most of the dialects. The vocalization seems to have begun in the 8th century and to have progressed through the literary

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period and later. It is difficult to trace it, as l long continued to be written for u. In modern Provençal, ls remains in Languedoc, lt in Rouergue. Auça occurs in the Boeci. The l was probably first retracted, to differentiate it from the following dental; and then this velar l was opened into u. Ex.: cal(i)daria > caudiera, cal(i)dum > caut, sol(i)dum >solt sout; falsum > fals faus, malos > mals maus, valles > vals vaus; *fallita > fauta, mültum > molt mout, *tollitum > tolt tout; dülcem > dolz doutz dous, pollicem > poutz, salicem > sautz; calvus > * cals caus, *volvita > volta vouta. So * altiat > auça aussa, * calceare > cauçar caussar: cf. § 73, Lc'y, Lty. In dos (=dous) and mot (= mout) the o seems to have absorbed the u. Cf. § 65, L.

1. The final t of *molt* seems to have been lost sometimes before a consonant: hence *mul*, which before d became *mon*.

2. Altretal (also autretal) became atretal by dissimilation; hence we have also atressi for altressi (autressi). Aital, aitan seem to be made up of tal, tan with the first syllable of aissi (< ac sic), regarded as a prefix meaning 'just'.

3. Pallidus > palles (through * pádillus?).

4. Fouzer is from fülger or * fülgerem = fülgur.

75. Of the groups beginning with m (and not ending in l, r, w, or y), the following usually remained unchanged — mb, md, mf, mp, ms, mt: gamba>gamba (if bobansa is from $\beta \delta \mu \beta \delta \sigma$, it is irregular); *semitarium *semidarium>semdier; triumphāre>triomfar; lampas *lampa>lampa; *camisīle?> camsil (dialectically cansil; so Samson, Sanso); comitem> comte (dialectically conte). Mbd shows four different developments in ambo dũos>ambedos abdos amdos andos. Mbt apparently became nt in *cambitos + -ōnem> canton (French?). Mn in the literary language generally remained unchanged (often spelled mpn), but in some dialects it was

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assimilated into nn, which was locally simplified into n: dömina dömna > dompna domna donna dona, damnāre > dampnar damnar dannar danar, fēmina * fēmna > femna fenna (feme is from fémena < fēmina),¹ höminem * hömnem > omne (ome is from * ómene < höminem).¹ Mnc' > ndz nz in * domnicēlla > donzela. Mpt > mt, dialectically nt: computāre > comtar contar, temptāre > temptar tentar.

76. (1) Of the groups beginning with n (and not ending in l, r, w, or y), the following generally remained unchanged (except that c, g before a became tš, dž in the north and northeast) - nc, nd, ng, nm, nt: hanka > anca, blank-> blanc (-ca -cha), franko>franc (-ca -cha); mandāre> mandar, *unda* > onda; *longum* > lonc (-ga -ia), *plango* > planc, ring > renc; anima > anma (also, by dissimilation, arma); sentire > sentir. For final nd, nt, see (2) below. Nc' > nts ns: * france(n)sis > frances, mancipium > mansip(also massip: cf. ns below), vincere > vencer venser. Nct became in different dialects n' int nt ntš: junctum > ionh ioint ionch, *unctūra* > onchüra, * pinctūra > peintüra penchüra, planctum > planh planch, sanctum > sanh saint sant. Ndc' became, in different dialects, ndz (later nz), nts, ndž: auindecim > quinze quintze quinge. Nf remained in some dialects, while in others it became ff, then f: confundit > confon cofon, infantem > enfant effant efant, inf ernum > enfern efern. Ng>ng: monăchum * mon'gu>mongue (manicum > margue by dissimilation). Ns, in learned words and new formations (see § 55, N), remained in most dialects, while in others (especially those of the centre) it became ss, then s: constilium > conselh cosselh, in simul > ensem essem, * insignare > ensenhar essenhar, pensare > pensar pessar, sen-

1 Cf. § 49, (3).

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sus > sens; for final ns, see § 63, (5). Ntc' > nts ns in panticem > pansa. Nv remained in some dialects, while in others it became vv, then v: convenire > convenir covenir. Ndc, ndg, n-g, ng' have been treated under § 73.

(2) Final **nd** remained as nt in the eastern and central part of the territory, became n in the west and a part of Limousin, and disappeared altogether in a part of Languedoc and Gascony: *amando*>aman, *descēndit*> deissen, *grandem*> grant gran gra, *mündum*> mont mon, *vēndit*> vent ben, *profündum* > preon, *quando*> quant quan. Final **nt** remained in most of the territory, but in a part of Languedoc and Gascony became n or disappeared: *föntem*> font fon fo, *möntem*> mont mon, *quantum*> quant quan, *věntum*> vent bent be.

77. Of the groups beginning with r (and not ending in l, r, w, or y), the following remained unchanged (except that c, g before a became tš, dž in the north and northeast) - rb, rc, rd, rf, rg, rm, rn, rp, rs, rt, rv: barba > barba, corbum > corp, hěrba > erba, örbum > orp; barca > barca, cĭrcāre > cercar, clěricum * clěrcum > clerc, furca > forca forcha, mercātum > mercat; ardentem > arden, * perdutum > perdut, vir(i) dem > vert; örphänum > orfe; * carricāre * carrigāre * cargāre > cargar cariar, largum > larc (-ga -ia), sērīca * sēr'ga > serga; erēmum >erm, forma > forma; hibernum > ivern, taberna > taverna, tornāre>tornar; wërpan>guerpir; arsum>ars, cursum>cors (for versus > ves, see § 55, R); artem > art, fortem > fort, mortem > mort; Arvernia > 'Arvernha (also, by dissimilation, Al-), servire > servir. For final rn, rs, see § 63, (5); § 65, R. Rc'>rts rs: parcere>parcer, parcit>partz, * torcere>torser. Rdc' became, in different dialects, rdz (later rz), rts, rdž: guatuorděcim *quattorděcim > quatorze quatortze quatorge. Rdg before a > rg, rdž: viridicantem * virdigantem > verguan verian. **Rps** > **rs:** *escarpsus (= excerptus) > escars. **Rtm** > rtm or rm: $f \delta rti \ m ente$ > fortmen formen. **Rg'** has been treated under § 73.

78. Of the groups beginning with s (and not ending in l, r, w, or y), the following usually remained unchanged through the literary period (except that c before a became ts in the north and northeast) - sc, sm (ssm), sn, sp, st: *buscum (?=buxum)?>bosc, *luscum>losc, pascha>pasca pascha, pěrsíca pěssíca * pěsca > pesca, piscātor > pescaire, piscarium > pesquier peschier, prëscan * trescāre > trescar; ex-mittere *esmittere (§ 55, X)>esmetre, pessimus>pesmes; eleemosyna >almosna, asinum > asne; exponere * esponere > esponre, gaspildjan?>guespilhar; præpositum>prebost, tristem>trist. For final scs, sts, see 2 below. Sc' became, in most of the territory, is; in parts of the north and northeast, s; in the west and the extreme east, i(t)š and (t)š (cf. § 73, Ssy): co(g) noscere > conoisser, crescere > creisser, ex-cernere * escernīre>eissernir, *ex-cerebellāre *es->esservelar, fascem> fais, nascere > naisser nasser naicher nacher, piscem > peis peich pech. Scb became sb in episcopus * ebiscobus > bisbes. Spm became sm in blasphemāre > blasmar. Stg became sg and sdž in domesticare *-gare>domesgar domesiar. Stm became sm in asthma > asma. For the later history of the s in all these groups, see § 65, S, 1.

1. Prěsbýter became regularly prestre: § 71, 1. But beside prěsbýter there existed in Vulgar Latin prebiter (Einf., § 140), the syllable presbeing replaced by the Latin prefix præ- or pre-, through the analogy of such words as præbitor, præpositus. From the accusative prebiterum we have regularly preveire. Preire (used in Flamenca) seems to be a cross between prestre and preveire.

2. Final sts, in nearly all the territory, was reduced to ts: $fin\bar{s}tis > finitz$, $h\delta stis > oz$ (accusative ost), $tr\bar{s}tes > tritz$ (sg. trist); but sts was kept in estz < istos and in its derivative aquestz. Similarly final scs was

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generally reduced to cs: *b discus? > (boscs) bocs (accusative bosc), quisquis > quecs.

3. Conois etc. $\langle co(g)n\bar{o}sco$ etc. (beside conosc etc.) are doubtless due to the second and third persons (conoisses conois etc.). Some of the modern eastern dialects have -isso corresponding to -sca (freisso etc.): this seems to indicate an old metathesis of sc in that region.

7. MISCELLANEOUS GROUPS.

79. Of the groups not yet discussed, the most important are ct, gd, gn, ks, which show palatalization. It is now generally assumed that the Celts, who had turned their native ct into χt , pronounced Latin ct in the same way when they learned Latin (Meyer-Lübke, *Einf.*, § 186), and likewise substituted χs for ks (Meyer-Lübke, *Gram.*, I, § 650), and probably χd , χn for gd, gn. The χ was attracted into a palatal spirant by the following dental, and the dental itself was then palatalized. Most philologists explain the development of cl, gl into l' (cf. § 68) in a similar way. Inasmuch as Indo-European pt had also been changed to χt in Celtic, it is not unlikely that the Celts substituted χt , χs for Latin **pt**, **ps** in a few words; the χ replacing p may sometimes have been rounded.

I. To account for palatalization in the non-Celtic parts of southern Gaul, we may assume either that the spirant pronunciation spread from the Celtic to the other regions, or that in the latter the palatalization came about simply through the mutual attraction of the guttural and the dental.

80. The groups will now be discussed in alphabetical order: -

Bc>(*pc), ptš (before a): *reprob(i)cat>repropcha. Brg>rg in fabrica *fabriga>farga. Bs>bs in the learned words absens, absensa. Bsc>sc: obscūrus>escürs.

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Bst>st: substat>sosta.

Bt > bt, t: subtilem > sobtil sotil. See also β t below.

Bts>ts: subtus>sotz.

 $\beta c > uc: * avica * a\beta ca > auca.$

 $\beta c' > udz$ or uts, later uz, us: avicëllum * $a\beta c\bar{e}llu > auzel$ auzel. Cf. § 65, C', 1.

 β d > ud, in the west bd: $d\bar{e}b\bar{i}tum * d\bar{e}\beta\bar{i}du * de\beta du$ > deude, mal habitum * mala $\beta\bar{i}du * mala\beta du$ > malaude; $c\bar{i}vit\bar{a}tem * c\bar{i}\beta\bar{i}-d\bar{a}de * ci\beta dad$ > cibdat. Cf. β t below.

 β t>ut, in the west pt: $d\bar{c}b\bar{i}tum * d\bar{c}\beta tu >$ deute depte, $d\bar{u}b\bar{i}to$ * $d\bar{u}\beta to >$ doute dopte, mal'habitum *mala $\beta tu >$ malaute malapte; $c\bar{i}vit\bar{a}tem * c\bar{i}\beta tate >$ ciutat (later cieutat: § 44, 2) ciptat, * movita * mo $\beta ta >$ mouta, *removitum?>remoute (Girart). Depte, malapte are not confined to the west (modern Limousin dete, Dauphiné malate); they come also from Latin $d\bar{c}b$ 'tum, mal'hab'tum: cf. § 47, (3).

Cc' > its > is; in the west and the extreme east its or ts: ecc'hīc > eici eissi eichi achi.

Cm > cm, m: *Jácomus > Iacmes Iames (also, perhaps borrowed, Iaumes).

C'm > im or sm: $d\check{e}c\check{m}um$ > deime desme, $fac\check{m}u(s)$ > faim. Cf. § 52, (4).

Ct > tš in most of the territory; but in the north and northeast, and in the southwest, it became, as in French, it: coctāre > cochar coitar, dīctum > dig dit, factum > fag fait, lacte > lag lait, lčctum > lięg leit, lūcta > lücha, nŏctem > nueg nueit, pactum-a > pacha, pčctus > pięg peitz, ŏcto > ueich¹ ueit. The ct of (e-)jectāre > getar does not show popular treatment; the word is similarly irregular in most of the other languages.

C't seems to give the same results as ct, namely tš and it: dīcītis > ditz, * explicitāre > esplechar espleitar, facītis > faitz,

¹ The *i* in *ueich* seems to be merely graphic

placitum > plach plait, (hence plaieiamen, plaideiar), * vŏcitum (= vacuum) > vuech voig¹ voh (hence voiar; voidar would appear to presuppose a form * voit).

Dc, dg: see § 73, D-g.

Dc', in the greater part of the territory, became dz, later z; but in Auvergne and some western dialects it became ts, and in parts of the southeast and southwest it gave dž: duŏděcim*doděcim> doze doze doge, jūdĭcem> iütge, radicīna> razina, scděcim> seze setze setge. *Iütge* may have been influenced by iütiar.

Dn developed peculiarly in consultudinem * costumen > costum, incūdinem * inclūd-? > enclutge.

 $Gd > d\check{z}$ and id, corresponding to the tš and it from ct: *frigdum (= frigdum)> freg freit (fem. freia freida). The irregularity in amygdǎla> amandola goes back to Vulgar Latin. Frezir freizir is perhaps from *fre(i)zar (cf. Italian frizzare) <* frigdiare.

G'd: see Yd.

Gm > m: pigměntum > pimen. Fragment is learned. Greek yµ became um: phlěgma > fleuma, sagma > sauma.

Gn > n': agněllum > anhel, půgnum > ponh. According to the rhymes, final n' would seem to have become n in many dialects. Stagnum > estanc, rēgnum > renc (also reing) show an early metathesis. When gnösco lost its g, cognösco became * conösco in popular Latin.

Gnd > n'd, later, in different dialects, ind, n'd, nd, ndž: $c \ddot{o}gn \ddot{i} tum * c \ddot{o}n' \ddot{i} du > *$ conhede * conhde, then coinde, cuende, conge. Cf. Gnt below. See § 47, 1.

Gnt > n't, later, in different dialects, int, n't, nt: cognitum > * con'itu > * conhete (the t being due to clerical influence) >

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¹ The *i* in *voig* seems to be merely graphic.

cointe conte; dignitatem * din'tate > denhtat. Cf. Gnd above.

Ks > is, in most of the territory; in Auvergne and in the extreme east it became its or ts: $ac \ sic > aissi, examen > eissam eicham echam, exilium > eissilh, exire > eissir eichir ichir, *exorbare > eissorbar, laxat > laissa, uxorem > oisor, toxicum > tueissec. In essaiar, essemple, essilh, the prefix became es- through the analogy of ex- before consonants: cf. § 55, X.$

Ksc > sc; before a, in the north and northeast, stš: **laxi*cāre > laschar, *toxicāre* > toscar.

Ksm>s'm, later sm: proximum> prosme pruesme. For the later history of the s (prueime), see § 65, S, 1.

Kss>is: *exser(r)are (*Einf.*, § 142)>eissarrar, *exsūcāre>eissügar (*essugar*presupposes a Vulgar Latin es-: see§ 55, X).

Pf>f: sapphīrum> safir.

Ppc>(*pc), ptš (before a): * cloppicāre > clopchar.

Ps, in some dialects, remained unaltered; but in most of the territory it changed (through xs: \$79) to is, iš, š, s, and us; iš and š belonging especially to the west, us to the east: capsa > capsa caissa caisha casha, ipse > eps eis, ipsa mente epsament eissamen ichamens, met-ipse > medeis mezeish medes mezeus, ne-ipse > neeps neis neus. The ps forms seem to have been crowded out by the others, especially by those with is.

Pt>pt, later t (except in parts of Languedoc and Gascony); in a few words, ut, it: *accaptāre (or *accapitāre?)> acaptar achatar, aptum>apte, adaptāre>azautar (hence azaut) through *aðaxtāre (§ 79), baptizāre> baptegar (g =dž) bateiar, capitāle> captal catal chatal, captīvum> captiu catiu and more commonly caitiu chaitiu (through *caxtīßu:

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§ 79), rupta > rota, septimana > septmana setmana, septim > set. Escrich escrit (= scriptum) are probably formed on the model of dich dit.

Td>t (through V. L. tt): $n \check{t} \check{t} dum$ > net, $p \check{u} \check{t} \check{t} dum$ > püt. Cf. § 47, (1).

Tn: if *renha*, 'rein', is connected with *rětine* (see Körting), it must have been influenced by *renhar* < *regnāre*.

Ts: et sīc, under the influence of ac sīc, became *ec sīc > eissi eichi ichi.

 $Yd > d\check{z}$ and id: $c\bar{o}g\check{t}to * c\bar{o}y\check{t}do > c\ddot{u}g$ c $\ddot{u}it$, $c\bar{o}git\bar{a}re * c\bar{o}yidare$ > c $\ddot{u}idar$, $r\check{t}g\check{t}dum * r\check{t}y\check{t}du > reide$ (§ 50, 1). Rede is perhaps a cross between reide and rege: § 49, (1).

FINAL CONSONANTS.

81. The only single consonants that occur in Latin at the end of a word are b, c, d, l, m, n, r, s, t. The only groups (in words preserved) are ks, nt, st.

SINGLE FINAL CONSONANTS.

82. D, n, r, t at the end of proclitics (*ad*, *in*, *per*, *et*) are really medial consonants, and must be distinguished from final n, r, t in independent words (*nomen*, *frater*, *amat*); final d occurs only in proclitics. The consonants will be treated in alphabetical order: —

B appears as b in Iacob, p in Iop, both learned.

C apparently fell after all vowels in some dialects; in others it remained after back vowels, and became i after a and front vowels: eccu'höc (\$55, W)>aco (\$43, 2), ecce höc>aisso ço so, höc>o oc (in the literary language these two forms were differentiated in use, o meaning 'it', oc meaning 'yes'); fac >fai, illác (\$16, 4)>lai la, ecce hac>sai sa; dīc>di, ecce $h\bar{\iota}c > \text{eici}, s\bar{\iota}c > \text{si.}$ Düi $< d\bar{\iota}c$ may perhaps be explained as due to the analogy of *düire* and of *fai.* Cf. § 63, (6).

D in *apud* fell early: see § 65, P, 2. In the proclitics *ad*, *quid*, the d disappeared before a consonant, and before a vowel became in most dialects $\eth > z$ (cf. § 65, D): a, que; a \eth az, que \eth quez.

L fell in *in simul*>essem. It remained in the learned Abel, tribunal. It is believed by some that *sivals*, 'at least', comes from *sī vel*.

M fell in Vulgar Latin at the end of a word of more than one syllable (§ 55, M): crēdam crēda > creza, dönum dönu > don, förtem förte > fort; Adam is learned. At the end of an independent monosyllable, it fell in some dialects and in others became n (cf. § 65, N): jam > ia, rēm > re ren (Marcabru uses rey for the rhyme), süm (verb) > so son. At the end of proclitics, m was probably kept at first before vowels and labials, while it became n before dentals, η before gutturals, and disappeared before spirants; but the n forms (helped by the analogy of en, non) and those without a final consonant replaced m before vowels and partly before labials, and probably took the place of η before guturals; we find, then, sometimes m before labials, but either no consonant or n before all other sounds: quěm > que, süm (verb) > so son,süm (= sũum) > so son som, *tüm (= tũum) > to ton tom.

+N fell in Vulgar Latin at the end of a word of more than one syllable (§ 55, M): $n\bar{o}men \ n\bar{o}me > nom$. At the end of proclitics we generally find n before a vowel, a form without n before spirants, both forms before other consonants, but often m before a labial: in > en (en amar, en cant), e (e Fransa, e ls), em (em breu); $n\bar{o}n > non$ (non es, non ges), no (no falh, no tol), nom (nom plagues). R remained: $am\bar{a}tor > amaire$, $c\bar{o}r > cor$, marmor > marbre(marme shows dissimilation), $s\bar{o}ror > sorre$ (sor through proclitic use). So in proclitics: per > per, $s\bar{u}per > sobre$.

I. A Provençal final r began to fall in the west and south in the 14th century: cf. § 65, R, I.

S remained: $am\bar{i}cus > amics$, $c\bar{o}rpus > cors$, facias > fassas, $f\bar{o}rtes > fortz$, $\bar{o}p\bar{e}ras > obras$, $s\bar{u}btus > sotz$. Between a palatal, or an n that did not fall, and an s, a t developed in some dialects: annos > anz, $f\bar{i}los > filz$; cf. § 63, (1), (8).

I. Final s began to fall or to become i in many dialects as early as the 14th century: cf. § 65, S, I. In mai, beside mais, the fall was earlier.

2. Final ts > t, in the second person plural of verbs, in parts of Limousin and Dauphiné: $hab\bar{c}tis$ > avet. Cf. § 64. In all first person plural forms (except esmes) final s fell very early: $am\bar{a}mus$ $am\bar{a}mu'$ > amám. Cf. § 167.

3. Through the influence of such common adverbs as entz < intus, fors < foris, ios $< de\bar{o}rsum$, mais < magis, mens < minus, nemps < nimis, plus < plus, sotz < subtus, sus < sursum, s, coming to be regarded as an adverbial ending, was often added to the suffix -men (belamens), to many other adverbs, as ensem-s, era-s, onca-s, poissa-s, and to some prepositions, as sen-s (cf. tras, vers, etc.). By the analogy of such double forms, we have for, men beside fors, mens.

4. Magis, used as a proclitic, probably became in Vulgar Latin * mais and * mas, whence Provençal mais and mas. For mai, see 1 above.

 \neg T, in independent words, fell very early, except in the preterit of verbs; there it was retained in most dialects in weak preterits of the first and third conjugations, in many dialects in weak preterits of the fourth, but disappeared in strong preterits: *amat*> ama, *cantābat*> cantava, *dar*^{*} * *hat*> dara, *dōnet*> don, *stat*> esta, *partībat*> partia, *placet*> platz, *tenēr*^{*} + -ē(b)*at*> tenria, *vēnit*> ven; *donāvit*> donet done, *vēndīdit* * *vendēdit*> vendet vende, *partīvit partīt*> parti, *placuit*> plac, *vīdit*> vi. In the proclitics *et* and * *ot* (= *aut*), the t fell before consonants; before vowels it became d,

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which, under the influence of *ad* and *quid*, developed like an original d: et > e, $e\delta ez$; *ot > o, $o\delta oz$; later, e and o came to be used often before vowels also.

FINAL GROUPS.

83. Ks remained in Vulgar Latin at the end of monosyllables only (\S 55, X); there it became, in Provençal, is: $r\bar{e}x$ > reis, $s\bar{e}x$ > seis. Greex, nicx are Latinisms.

Nt was generally reduced to n; but in the extreme north and some parts of the south the t was retained in *-ant*: *amant* > aman, $hab\bar{e}(b)ant$ > avian aviant; *cantent*> canten; *vēndunt* > vendon. In some dialects the n fell after o, u (vendo, au); *-on* and *-o* were used concurrently by the poets.

St > s in est > es. Cf. § 28, 5.

SPORADIC CHANGE.

84. For certain consonant changes no laws have been established.¹ Some of them doubtless originate in the language of children, which is governed by principles different from those which regulate the speech of adults. Others are due to vague associations of sound or sense. Borrowed and learned words are especially exposed to such whimsical alteration.

INSERTION.

85. The insertion (or addition) of a consonant, in such cases as those mentioned below, is probably always due to some false association or wrong etymology, but the specific

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¹ The phenomena of dissimilation have been well classified by M. Grammont in La dissimilation consonantique dans les langues indo-européennes et dans les langues romanes, 1895. For metathesis, see Zs., XXVIII, 1.

cause often cannot be ascertained; the added consonant seems to be generally a liquid or a nasal:—

alhondre -s < aliŭnde: V. L. * aliŭnder?

consi = cossi < eccu' sic: analogy of the prefix co- con-. Cf. § 76, (1), nf, ns.

enclutge < incūdinem : cf. French enclume.

engal = egal < æquālem: analogy of the prefix e- en-. Cf. § 76, (1), nf, ns.

invern = ivern < hibërnum: hi- mistaken for the prefix in-; cf. Italian inverno, etc.

parven (hence parvensa) < parëntem (parëre): analogy of ferven, serven, or of espaven, espavensa?

penchenar < pectināre: analogy of pencheire, penchura?

perdris = perditz < perdicem: analogy of perdre? Cf. French perdrix. pouzer = pouze < põllicem: confusion with polgar < pollicāre.

refreitor = refeitor < refectorium : association with refreidar (freit).

renlinquir = relinquir < relinquère: analogy of e- en-; cf. reforsar and French renforcer.

METATHESIS.

86. Metathesis is not very common in Provençal, although a few texts offer many examples; it is apparently restricted to liquids and nasals:—

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\begin{aligned} & \operatorname{cabirql} = \ast cabriol < capreôlum. \\ & \operatorname{cocodrilla} < crocodīlum: cf. Italian coccodrillo. \\ & \operatorname{craba} = cabra < capra. \\ & \operatorname{enfrondar} = \ast enfondrar < French effondrer < ?*infündulāre. \\ & \operatorname{escremir} < skirmbn: cf. French escrimer. \\ & \operatorname{estanc} < stagnum: cf. French étang. \\ & \operatorname{esturmen} = estrument < instruměntum: cf. Italian stormento. \\ & \operatorname{formir} = fromir < frumjan: cf. French formir, etc. \\ & \operatorname{freïr} = ferir < ferîre. \\ & \operatorname{grada} = garda < *warda. \\ & \operatorname{grepir} = guerpir < wërpan. \\ & \operatorname{lhun} = nulh < nüllum: analogy of negun. \\ & \operatorname{presseguier} (also pess-) < * préssega < pěrstca. \\ & \operatorname{renc} (also regne) < regnum. \end{aligned}
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trida $< \tau l \gamma \rho \iota \delta a$, tronar < tonitruāre + thrönus, trușill $< t \delta r culum$, trobar $< t t u r b \delta r e$: see Körting,

I. In ginhol = genoth < genicilium the palatalization is shifted from the liquid to the nasal. In lunh = nulh < nullum, on the other hand, the palatalization remains at the end of the word, but the liquid and the nasal change places.

DISSIMILATION.

87. Dissimilation, like the other irregular phenomena, affects mainly liquids and nasals, particularly r; it is not, however, entirely confined to these classes. The two nasals, m and n, are similar enough to undergo dissimilation. Some of the cases go back to Vulgar Latin, while others are peculiar to Provençal or to Provençal and French. In the table below, a dash indicates the total disappearance of the consonant in question.

 $\beta + \beta > \beta + - (v + -): habēbam > *a\betaēa > avia, *vivā$ ciārium > viacier, vivācius > viatz. Vianda, whatever its ultimate origin may be, was probably borrowed from French.

 $\mathbf{kw} + \mathbf{kw} > \mathbf{k} + \mathbf{kw}$: quinque > cinque > cinc.

1+1 < r+l, -+l, d+1: calaměllum > calamel caramel, *umbilīcŭlum > emborígol, flēbĭlem > fleble freble feble, ŭlulāre > ulular udolar. Perhaps püs = plüs < plūs is to be explained by dissimilation, occurring in such phrases as plus larc, plus lonc.

 $\mathbf{m} + \mathbf{m} > \mathbf{n} + \mathbf{m}$: memorāre > membrar nembrar (renembransa).

m + n > m + r: * cominicāre > comenegar comergar, * indominicātum > endomeniat endomergat, mancipium > mansip massip marsip, manicum > margue, monāchum > mongue morgue. n + m > r + m: anima > anma arma, * minimāre > mermar.

n+n > n+r, r+n; ?d+n: canonicum > canonegue canorgue, venēnum > verin; nec ūnum > negün degün? (cf. Andalusian and Asturian dengun, Catalan dingu, apparently from nec ūnum + ningŭlum).

r+r>r+., -+r, l+r: *Bernhardum>Bernart Bernat, marmor>marbre marme, proprium>propri propri; die Mércūri (influenced by die Véněris)> dimercres dimecres, grandem rem>grance gance, pr(eh)enděre> prenre penre, prěsbyter> prestre pestre; arbitrium> albire, Arvěrnium> Alvernhe, peregrinus> pele(g)rinus> peleris, pŭrpůra> polpra.

s + s > - + s: *spasmāre > (espasme) pasmar (cf. French pâmer), perhaps through confusion of the initial es- with the prefix ex-.

t+t? > -+t: stationem? > sazo (cf. French saison, Spanish sazon.

 $\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{y} > \mathbf{y} + -: * disjejūnāre > * disieunāre > * disy'nāre > dis'nar disnar.$

III. MORPHOLOGY.

88. The most important morphological developments are common to all, or nearly all, the Romance languages. They may therefore be ascribed, in their early stages, to Vulgar Latin, although direct evidence of their beginnings is scanty.

I. DECLENSION.

NOUNS.

89. (1) During the late Vulgar Latin and early Romance period neuter nouns gradually became masculine; this change was doubtless due in part to phonetic developments which obliterated distinctive endings: $d\bar{o}num > don, m.; n\bar{o}men >$ nom, m. Mare, however, became almost always feminine in Gaul: la mar. Some neuter plurals in -a, used mainly in a collective sense, were preserved and eventually became feminine singulars: $f\bar{o}lium f\bar{o}lia > folha$, f. sg.; lignum ligna > lenha, f. sg.; so luogua, poma, prada, beside loc, pom, prat (and, by analogy, grasa, beside gras < gradus); similarly labia > lavias, f. pl.

(2) Masculine and feminine nouns usually kept their original gender. Abstract nouns in -or, however, regularly became feminine in Gaul, other abstract nouns being mostly feminine in Latin: $hon \bar{o}rem > on or$, f.; $sap \bar{o}rem > sabor$, f. With the exception of manus, which generally retained its gender, feminine nouns of the second and fourth declensions, unless they

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passed into the first declension (p irus > pera), became masculine, to conform to the usual -us type: fraxinus > fraisnes, m.; p inus > pins, m. Attracted by such words as these, arbor became masculine. There were some other less important shifts.

I. Juventus, passing into the second declension, became masculine (ioven); but we find also ioventut, f. Laus became masculine in Provençal; fin, on the other hand, is always feminine. $M\check{e}r\check{u}la > merle$, m. Correitz, linh, both m., occur beside correia < corrigia, linha < līnea. Other similar changes might be noted. Pr. dia (also di), like Latin dīes, is usually masculine.

90. Some nouns passed from the fourth to the second declension in the classic Latin period ($d\check{o}mus$, ficus); the rest doubtless followed in Vulgar Latin ($fr\bar{u}ctus$,¹ gradus, manus). Fifth declension nouns in *-ies* went over, for the most part, to the first declension:² $d\bar{i}es > dia$, facies > fassa, glacies > glassa, rabies > rabia; but we find also di, fatz, glatz (ratge is probably French), following the third declension type. Fifth declension nouns which did not shift to the first came to be declined after the model of the third (*fides*, *res*, *spes*). The five declensions were therefore reduced to three, presumably in Vulgar Latin times. Among these there were some exchanges: polvera, vergena; cf. § 89, (1), (2), 1.

91. The use of cases became more and more restricted in Vulgar Latin, prepositional constructions taking the place of pure case distinction. At the beginning of the Romance period, nouns probably had, in unstudied speech, only two cases in constant use: a nominative and an accusative or accusative-ablative. These two cases were generally retained

¹ Cato uses fructi.

² The process began in classic Latin: materies materia, etc.

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in Provençal, for the second and third declensions, until the literary period: we may call them *nominative* and *objective*.

(1) The locative, which had almost vanished in classic Latin, lingered in Vulgar Latin only in names of places. It has left no sure traces in Provençal.

(2) The vocative, in classic Latin, was like the nominative for most words; in Vulgar Latin it probably disappeared, except in Church phrases, such as $m\bar{\imath}$ domine. In Provençal we find the nominative regularly used in address (chanzos, companh, emperaire, ioglars, Papiols), although the objective occasionally occurs in its stead (barons pl., ioglar malastrüc, trachor).

(3) The genitive, in the popular language, was little by little replaced by other constructions — commonly by the ablative with *de* or by the dative; the beginnings of this substitution may be observed as early as Plautus. Among Provençal nouns—aside from such learned forms as ancianor, christianor, companhor, paianor, parentor— we find remnants of the genitive only in a few compound words, as diious < *die Jovis*, and in the standing phrase es mestier < est ministěrii.

(4) The dative, which in most words had the same ending as the ablative, came to be replaced, in the greater part of the Empire, by the accusative with ad; this construction, too, goes back as far as Plautus. Provençal nouns retain no traces of the dative.

(5) The ablative, after the fall of final m (§ 55, M) and the loss of quantitive distinctions in unstressed syllables (§ 21), differed little or not at all from the accusative in the singular of nearly all nouns: causăm causā, donum dono, patrem patre, frūctum frūctū, diem die. Furthermore, some prepositions (especially in) were used both with the accusative and

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with the ablative. It was inevitable, then, that the two cases should be confounded in the singular, and we have evidence of such confusion as early as the first century of our era; this led gradually to a substitution of the accusative for the ablative in the plural, the accusative plural being somewhat commoner and frequently simpler than the ablative. We may, therefore, take the accusative as the basis of the Provençal objective, remembering, however, that this accusative has been more or less blended with the ablative.

(6) The two-case declension remained theoretically in use in Provençal literature through the 14th century; but in texts later than the 12th, cases are often confused. From the spoken language the declension disappeared, in the west (as in Catalan), before the literary period; in the centre and east, probably in the 12th century; in the north, in the 13th. The case preserved was usually the objective, but sometimes the nominative. Some nouns in *-aire -ador* kept both forms, with a differentiation of meaning.

92. In the discussion of declensions some phonetic peculiarities must not be overlooked: —

(1) In the nom. pl. of the 2d declension, a stressed e, followed in the next syllable by final -i, would regularly give i (cf. § 27, 1); but the e is preserved by the analogy of the nom. and obj. sg. and the obj. pl.: $cap ill \bar{i} > cabel, m iss \bar{s} > mes, quet \bar{i} > quet, s er \bar{s} > ser.$ We do, however, find cabil, and (perhaps by analogy) auzil $< auc \tilde{c} l l \bar{i}$.

(2) In the nom. pl. of the 2d declension, a c or g before the final -i would regularly be palatalized (cf. § 55, C, G); but it is preserved from palatalization by the analogy of the other three forms: $am\bar{i}c\bar{i} > amic, l\bar{o}ng\bar{i} > lonc.$ PROVENÇAL MORPHOLOGY.

(3) For the development of a t between a palatal or an n and a final s, see § 82, S: *annos* > anz, *filios* > filz.

(4) For the simplification of final scs, sts to cs, ts, see § 78,
2: *bŭscus?>bocs, trīstes>tritz.

(5) For the history of *-arius* and *-torius*, see § 23, 1 and § 73, Ry, 1.

93. (1) Nouns whose objective singular ended in s were invariable in the earlier part of the literary period; bracchium > bratz, $c \check{o}rpus > cors$, imperatricem > emperairitz, fascem > fais, latus > latz, lucem > lütz, missum > mes, nasum > nas, $\check{o}pus > ops$, $\check{u}rsum > ors$, piscem > peis, pectus > peitz, pretium > pretz, tempus > tems, vers, visum > vis, vocem > votz. Later, however, a plural (originally obj. pl.) was made for such words by adding -es, generally at a time when final ts had been reduced to s (§ 64): brasses, corses, messes, peisses, verses; examples occur as early as the end of the 12th century.

(2) Other invariable nouns are midons, sidons, and often laus and res; the last two sometimes have an objective lau, re. Midons comes from the Church Latin $m\bar{i}$ domine, which was popularized by the substitution of the Provençal don for domine and the addition of the nom. -s; the term was transferred from religious to feudal, and thence to amatory use, and came to mean 'my lady.' Sidons is formed on the model of midons.

(3) For nouns in tš, see § 63, (1): * disdūctum > desdüg, frūctum > früch, gaudium > gaug, nŏctem > nuech. Such words were very often written in the plural with -gz, which was pronounced either ts or tš. The pronunciation ts is attested by such rhymes as malfagz: alumenatz.

94. Infinitives used substantively conformed to the 2d de-

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clension type: lauzars lauzar (like focs foc), rire-s rire (like fabre-s fabre): see § 96. The same thing is true of masculine post-verbal nouns: (getar) getz get, (guidar) guitz guit, (lansar) lans (invariable).

FIRST DECLENSION.

95. This declension came to include a part of the fifth and also some neuter plurals of the second and third. With the exception of dia (nearly always masculine) and of a few learned words, it contained only feminine nouns. As the nominative, accusative, and ablative singular early became identical, leaving only one form in the singular, the plural forms were reduced to one, the accusative crowding out the nominative; this substitution, which must have been begun before the Provençal period, was doubtless helped by the identity of nominative and accusative plural in feminine nouns of the third declension. *Causa* will serve as a model:—

causa	> causa	causæ * causas	>causas
causam	> causa	causas	> causas

I. Dia sometimes has a nom. sg. dias, following the example of other masculine nouns.

2. Many feminine proper names, in Gaul and elsewhere, developed a Low Latin declension $-a - \bar{a}ne(m)$ or $-a - \bar{e}ne(m)$, as Anna Annāne. Provençal has few traces of this inflection. The word putana $<?p\bar{u}tida + \bar{a}nem + a$ may be a remnant of it. Cf. Meyer-Lübke, Gram., II, p. 27; E. Philipon, Les accusatifs en -on et en -ain, Rom., XXXI, 201.

SECOND DECLENSION.

96. This declension came to include the fourth. With the exception of mas, 'hand' (generally feminine), it contained only masculine nouns. The different types may be illustrated by *focus*, *donum*, *faber*:—

 $f\delta cus > foos$ $d\bar{o}num * d\bar{o}nus > dons$ faber> faure fabre fabres $f\delta cum > foc$ $d\bar{o}num$ > donfabrum > fabre $f\delta c\bar{i}$ > foc $d\bar{o}na$ $*d\bar{o}n\bar{i} > don$ $fabr\bar{i}$ $f\delta cos$ > focs $d\bar{o}na$ $*d\bar{o}ns > dons$ fabros $f\delta cos$ > focs $d\bar{o}na$ $*d\bar{o}nos > dons$ fabros

For the c of $f \delta c \bar{i}$, see § 92, (2). For $* d \bar{o} n u s$, etc., see § 89 (1). Nom. fabre is due to the analogy of the other three cases; the s of fabres is borrowed from the prevailing focs type.

1. Neuters which long preserved their gender often have no -s in the nom. sg.: segle or segles. Nouns in -age from -aticum commonly have no -s: corage, damnage, message, senhorage; but forms with -s occur also. Learned nouns in -i from -ium regularly have no -s: breviari, emperi, inzizi, testimoni. Post-verbal nouns, on the other hand, usually take the nom. -s: albires, blasme-s, consires, desires (cf. § 94). By the analogy of the fabre-s, segle-s, blasme-s types, many masculines in -e sometimes drop the -s: clergue-s, diable-s, morgue-s, oncle-s, poble-s. Maestre, prestre regularly have no -s.

2. Most proper names are declined like common nouns: Arnautz Arnaut, Boecis Boeci, Enrics Enric, Lozoics Lozoic, Peire-s Peire. Many proper names, however, developed in Gaul and elsewhere, from the 9th century on, a Low Latin declension -us -one(m), as Petrus Petronis (cf. § 95, 2): hence Carle-s Carló, Peire-s Peiró, etc.; so Bergonhs Bergonhó, etc.

3. Mas, being usually feminine, has a nom. pl. mas.

4. For pagadi, salvi, soli, etc., see § 51, 1.

THIRD DECLENSION.

97. This declension absorbed a part of the fifth: cf. § 90.

98. Nouns whose stem was different in the nominative and the accusative singular, reconstructed the nominative to correspond to the accusative, the new form being similar to the original genitive: *papilio papilionem* > *papilionis papilionem*, *pēs pēdem* > *pēdis pēdem*. The change began in the Vulgar Latin period. Exceptions to the rule are names of persons,

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unless they ended in *-ans* or *-ens*: *něpos nepōtem* > neps nebot; but *amans amantem* > **amantis amantem* > amáns amán.

1. Carnis for caro is used by classic writers. Grüis for grüs occurs in the Appendix Probi III, belonging perhaps to the 3d century. Papiliönis, pědis, travis = trabs, and some others are found in the 8th century Glossary of Reichenau.

99. Masculine nouns of the third declension, early in the Provençal period, made their nominative plural conform to the second declension type, thus distinguishing it from the objective plural: *pater patrem patres patres* > paire paire paire paires (cf. Old French and Italian). Feminines, on the other hand, kept the nominative plural in -s: *mater matrem matres matres* > maire maire maires.

100. A few neuter nouns, becoming masculine in Vulgar Latin, developed distinctively masculine forms in the singular: genus genus > * generis * generem > genres genre; so fulgur (>fülger) > * fülgerem > fouzer. Most neuters, however, kept in the singular their original stem: semen > sem, tempus > tems. But those in -men regularly, and those in -r sometimes, took an -s in the nominative singular: flumen flumen > flüms flüm, marmor marmor > marme-s marme; cor, in the literary language, usually has no nominative -s. In the plural most neuters brought their forms into harmony with the masculine type, but those in -us kept the -s throughout: (caput>) capus * capum capita capita > caps cap caps, cor cor corda corda > cor cor cors, nomen nomen nomina nomina > noms nom nom noms; but corpus corpus corpora corpora > cors cors cors. Mare, becoming feminine, was declined thus: mars mar mars mars.

1. Génus also became ges, which was used as an adverb.

101. The third declension comprises three principal types: (1) nouns which in Latin had no difference of stem or of

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accent between the nominative and the accusative singular; (2) those which had a difference of stem but not of accent; (3) those which had a difference of accent.

(1) Nouns with no difference of stem or of accent:-

	MASCULINE	
canis > cas	pater > paire-s	sõl >sol-s
canem > ca	patrem > paire	sölem > sol
canes > ca	patres > paire	sõles > sol
canes > cas	patres > paires	sõles > sols
	FEMININE	
$f\bar{\imath}nis^1 > fis$	mater > maire	fides > fes
finem > fi	matrem > maire	fidem > fe
fines > fis	matres > maires	fides > fes
fines >fis	matres > maires	fides > fes

I. Masculine nouns of this type which etymologically had no -s in the nom. sg., often took one, even in the earliest times.

2. Laus and res were often invariable, but were sometimes declined like sols and fes.

(2) Nouns with a difference of stem but not of accent:-

MASCUI	INE	FEMININ	E	N	NEUTER
pons * pon	ntis > ponz	pars * par	tis > partz	Z	<i>ūmen</i> >lüm-s
pontem	>pon	partem	> part	Li	<i>ūmen</i> >lüm
pontes	>pon	partes	> partz	li	<i>ūmĭna</i> > lüm
pontes	>ponz	partes	> partz	li	<i>ūmīna</i> > lüms

NAMES OF PERSONS

comes > coms	hõmo > om
comitem > comte	$h\delta m$ inem > ome omne ²
comites > comte	homines > ome omne
comites > comtes	homines > omes omnes

1. For other neuter types, see § 100.

2. Om later developed an inflection oms om om s.

3. Lex, rex became leis lei leis leis, reis rei rei reis.

1 See § 89, I.

2 See § 47, (3).

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(3) Nouns with a difference of accent: —

MASCULINE		FEMININE		
sĕrmo * sermōnis	> sermos	ratio *rationis	> razos	
sermöneri	> sermo	rationem	> razo	
sermōnes	> sermo	rationes	> razos	
sermōnes	> sermos	rationes	> razos	

NAMES OF PERSONS IN -ANS, -ENS

amans * amanti	s > amáns	parens * parentis	> paréns
amantem	> amán	parěntem	> parén
amantes	> amán (f. amáns)	parentes	> parén (f. paréns)
amantes	> amáns	parentes	> paréns

NAMES OF PERSONS NOT IN -ANS, -ENS

amātor	> amaire	sĕnior	> senher	mŭlier	> molher
amatörem	> amador	seniörem	> senhor	mulierem 1	> molher
amatõres	> amador	seniōres	> senhor	mulières	> molhers
amatōres	> amadors	seniōres	> senhors	mulières	> molhers
servitor	> servire	baro	> bar	soror	> sorre sor ²
	> servire > servidor	baro barõnem	-		> sǫrre sǫr² > sorọr
servitõrem	-		> baro	sorõrem	

I. After the same pattern as senher, we have pastor pastorem > pastre pastor, etc.; after the bar pattern, *companio (Einf., § 43) *companionem >companh companhó, *fillo (Körting) *fillönem?> fel feló, glütto (=glüto) gluttönem > glot glotó, latro latrönem > laire lairó, lčo (treated like the name of a person) leönem > leu leó, etc. On the model of amaire, servire, we find trobaire trobadór, etc., iauzire iauzidór, etc.; and, for the second and third conjugations, teneire tenedór, etc., beveire bevedór, etc. The inflection of such words became much confused, and some of them eventually developed double declensions: bars bar bars, barós baró baró barós; emperaires emperaire emperaires, emperadórs emperadór emperadór emperadórs. Some proper names follow the bar model: Bret Bretó, Folc-s (Folques) Folcó (later Folcós Folcó), Gasc Gascó, Uc Ugó, (later Ucs Uc); cf. § 96, 2.

¹See § 16, 1. See § 52, (1), 1.

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ADJECTIVES.

102. What has been said concerning the inflection of nouns applies also to adjectives: see §§ 91-101. For pronominal adjectives see §§ 114 ff.

I. The operation of phonetic laws sometimes results in a difference in stem between the m. and the f.: bos bona, larcs larga, nutz nuda, preon preonda; mut muda, prezat prezada. For pauc pauca, rauc rauca, see § 65, C, I. For -arius -aria, -torius -toria, see § 23, I; § 73, Ry, I.

2. Adjectives in -s or -š are undeclinable in the m. sg.: glorios, perfieg. Those in -s originally had no inflectional ending in the m. pl., but later they sometimes added -es: divers diverses, frances franceses. For the pl. of those in š, see § 93, (3).

103. We must recognize two classes of adjectives: (1) those which in Latin distinguish the feminine from the masculine; (2) those which do not.

I. Adjectives like *acer*, which, though inflected after the 3d declension type, could distinguish the m. from the f. in the nom. sg., fell into one or the other — usually the first — of the following classes (*agre agra, alegre alegra; terrestre terrestre*).

(1) Masculine and feminine different: ---

MASCU	LI	IE	FEMINI	NE
běllus	>	bęls	bělla	> bęla
běllum	>	bel	běllam	> bęla
bělli	>	bęl	běllæ * běllas	> belas
běllos	>	bęls	běllas	> bęlas
pauper	>	paubre-s	paupěra	> paubra
paupěrum	>	paubre	paupĕram	> paubra
paupěri	>	paubre	paupěræ-*as	> paubras
paupěros	>	paubres	paupěras	> paubras

(2) Masculine and feminine alike: ----

MASCULINE	FEMININE		
fidēlis > fezels	fidēlis > fezels		
fidēlem > fezel	fidēlem > fezel		
fideles > fezel	fidēles > fezels		
fideles > fezels	fidēles > fezels		

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I. Some adjectives of the second class were attracted into the first either in Vulgar Latin or in Provençal; this happened to all adjectives in -és, -able, - ible, and also to comun, dous, fol, freble, graile, len, mol, noble, paubre (early), rude, trist: cortes cortesa, durable durabla; comuna, doussa, etc. Some kept both inflections: dolens, dolens or dolenta; grans, grans or granda, etc. So gens, gens or genta.

104. In impersonal constructions we frequently find a nominative singular without -s, which is apparently a survival of the Latin neuter: *m'es bel (greu, parven, semblan, etc.) que* ... But the form with -s sometimes occurs in the same constructions: *m'es greus que*...

1. For es mestier, see § 91, (3).

105. Most adverbs of manner were formed by adding -men (-ment, -mens, or -menz) to the feminine singular of the adjective: belamen. These adverbs were originally ablative phrases: *serēna měnte*, etc. In Provençal the specific meaning of the -men was forgotten, but the two parts might still be separated by an intervening word: epsa...ment. When two adverbs in -men were used together, the ending was generally affixed to only one, oftener the first. Bona and mala could be used as adverbs without the suffix.

1. For the adverbial ending -s, see § 82, S, 3.

COMPARISON.

106. Adjectives and adverbs regularly formed their comparative by prefixing plüs to the positive, and their superlative by prefixing the definite article to the comparative: cara, plüs cara, la plüs cara. This method of comparison goes back to Vulgar Latin times.

I. 'Than' is expressed by que and de.

107. Some adjectives preserved their old comparative in

-ior. These comparatives had an inflection similar to that of senher: cf. § 101, (3) and § 101, (3), 1.

POSITIVE		COMPARATIVE	
altus:	aut		aussor
* bellātus = běllus:		bellaire bellázer-s	bellazor
gěnitus:	gen	génser-s	gensor
*grevis = gravis:	gręu	greuger	
grössus:	gros	gruęysser	
laið:	lai	láiger	
largus:	larc		largor
levis:	lęu	lęuger	
longus:	lonc		lonhọr
(grandis):	(gran)	máier	maiọr
(bŏnus):	(bon)	melher	melhor
(paucus):	(pauc)	menre-s	menor
nūgālis:			nüalhor
(malus):	(mal)	pęier	peior
(mŭltus):	(molt)		plüsor ¹
sðrdídus:	sorde	sordeier	sordeior

108. The following neuter comparatives were used as adverbs: genseis genses gensetz (<génser influenced by longeis, sordeis); longeis longeitz <?*longitius (<longiter + longius); mais < magis; melhs < mělius; mens < minus; peitz < pějus; sordeis < sordidius; viatz < vivacius. Mais, melhs, mens, peitz were used also as neuter pronouns. Viatz lost its comparative sense.

109. A few adjectives, most or all of them learned, preserved the old superlative form with an intensive sense: altisme, carisme, pesme, prosme, santisme.

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¹ Perhaps from a fusion of *plūs* and *pluriores* = *plūres*. Cf. Fr.

NUMERALS.

110. The cardinal numerals are: ----

ün	onze	vint e ün	dozent
dọs	dotze	vint e dos	tresent
tres	trẹtze	trenta	quatre cen
quatre	quatorze	quaranta	cinc cens (de)
cinc	quinze	cinquanta	mil
sęis	sętze, sędze	sessanta	dos milia
sęt	dętz e sęt	setanta	tres melia
uęg	detz e ueg	quatre vint	quatre mila
nọu	detz e nou	nonanta	cinc milliers (de)
dętz	vint, vin	cent, cen	cent miria

u(n)s üna	düi doi	doas dos
ü(n) üna	dos (düi)	doas dos

Düi doi are from Vulgar Latin $d\tilde{u}\tilde{\imath} = d\tilde{u}o$; dos is from $d\tilde{u}os$, doas from $d\tilde{u}as$. Tres has a form trei (originally nom. m.), patterned after düi, and a form treis, which seems to be a cross between tres and trei. For the dialect forms of onzesetze, see §76, (1), Ndc', and §80, Dc'. Cen, multiplied by another number, took a plural form when used substantively; when used adjectively, it generally did not, but we find dozentas with a feminine noun. Mil had four plurals, milia miria melia mila; milliers is a noun.

1. As an example of a longer compound numeral, we have *cen e quatre* vint e ueg.

2. From ambo we have the obj. forms, m. and f., ams, ambas. Ambo combined with düī (dŭos dŭas), and perhaps influenced by Pr. ab (§ 65, P, 2), had this inflection:

amdui	andui	abdui	ambedui	amdoas
amdos	andos	abdos	ambedos	amdoas

II2. The ordinal numerals had separate forms for the two genders; the masculine forms followed the second declension

type, the feminine forms, the first declension. After 5th, they were made by adding to the cardinal numeral the originally distributive ending $-\bar{e}nus -\bar{e}na$.

primięr,	primięra	seize(n), se	izẹna	onze(n),	onzẹna
segon(t)	, segonda	sete(n), se	etena	doze(n),	dozẹna
terz,	terza	oche(n), oc	hẹna	vinte(n),	vintena
quart,	quarta	nove(n), no	vena	cente(n),	centena
quint,	quinta	deze(n), de	zena	mile(n),	milena

113. Beside primier we find premier prümier promier (§ 44, 1, 3), and also prim and primeiran; for the developments of the ending —ier, see § 23, 1 and § 73, Ry, 1. Terz, terza regularly became ters, tersa (§ 83, Rty). Such forms as seconda, tercia, sexta, octava, nona, decima are learned.

1. As an example of a compound ordinal numeral, we have vintena tersa.

PRONOUNS.

114. Under this head will be treated not only pronouns and pronominal adjectives, but also articles.

115. In popular Latin the personal, possessive, and demonstrative pronouns and adjectives had two sets of forms, according as they were accented or unaccented (§ 19). Ille, when stressed and used pronominally, became a disjunctive personal pronoun of the third person; when unstressed and used pronominally, it furnished the conjunctive forms of the third person; when unstressed and used adjectively, it developed into a definite article. *Ipse* had similar uses. These differentiations must have begun in Vulgar Latin times.

116. The declension of *ille* was considerably altered in Vulgar Latin. The neuter *illud* disappeared, being replaced by *illum*. Through the influence of $qu\bar{i} c\bar{u}jus c\bar{u}i$, **illi illu*-

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 $jus^1 ill\bar{u}\bar{i}^1$ came to be used beside *ille illīus illā*. The feminine had, beside *illīus illā*, a genitive and dative *illæ*; through the analogy of *illūjus illūā*, *illæ* was expanded into *illæjus*¹ *illæi*.¹ *Illīus* then went out of use. In the plural, *illõrum* (which in some regions, by the analogy of *illūjus illūā*, had a form ** illūrum*) crowded out *illārum*; this *illõrum* came to be used also as a dative.

Ipse and iste followed in the main the same course as ille.

ARTICLES.

117. The indefinite article comes from $\bar{u}nus$, which seems to have been occasionally so used even in classic Latin: —

ü(n)s	üna
ü(n)	üna

118. (1) The definite article comes from unaccented *ille*, which, being used as a proclitic, regularly lost its first syllable (§ 19). *Ille* (**illī*), *illum*, *illī*, *illos*, *illa*, *illas* became respectively le (li), lo, li or lhi,² los, la, las. Le, lo, li, lhi, la frequently elided their vowel before another vowel (l'an, l'arma), becoming l or lh. Furthermore, le, lo, li, lhi, los, in the intertonic position after a vowel (vé lo páire), regularly lost their vowel (vel páire)⁸; and, by analogy, la and las were sometimes reduced to l and ls. We have, then, beside the full forms, the proclitics l, lh, and the enclitics l, lh, ls. Inasmuch as l might be vocalized before a dental,⁴ the enclitics l and ls sometimes became u and us (a u porter, e uz dias antix).

(2) The particles e and que, with the enclitic l, formed

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¹These forms existed as early as the 1st century of our era. See Zs., XXVI, 600, 619. *Ejus*, *ei* may have had some influence.

² See § 67, (2).

^{3 \$ 45.}

^{4 § 74, (2).}

combinations el and quel. Quel, being understood as qu'el, gave rise to a form el.

(3) In the f. nom. sg. there is a form li or lhi, which is hard to explain. The most likely theory is that when the masculine $qu\bar{i}$ took the place of the feminine qua (see § 133), the masculine **illī* came to be used beside *illa*,¹ for the feminine. The Provençal feminine li (lhi) which resulted was strongly supported by the analogy of a feminine possessive mi, beside ma (see § 127).²

(4) The regular forms are, therefore, the following: -

MASCULINE							FEN	AINIR	١E	
e= { nom. :	le	li	1	el		la	li	lhi	1	lh
Sg. $\begin{cases} nom.: \\ obj.: \end{cases}$	lọ	1	u	ęl		la	1			
D1 \ nom.:	li	lhi	1	lh		las				
Pl. $\begin{cases} nom.: \\ obj.: \end{cases}$	lọs	ls	us			las	ls			

In many texts the objective forms lo, los, ls are used in the nominative.

I. The m. obj. sg. le, obj. pl. les, which occur in a few texts, are doubtless French. So is the enclitic form s for ls or us: de s, entre s, e s.

2. The enclitic forms combine as follows with the prepositions a, con, de, en, entre, iosta, per, sus, and with the conjunctions e, ni, o, que, si: al au als aus, col, del deu dels deus (des), enl el els eus, entrels, iostal, pel pels, sul suls; eil (= e lhi) el (= e lo), nils, oill (= o lhi), quel, sil. They combine freely with other words: eral (= era le), fals (= fa los), etc.

II9. In some southwestern and some southeastern dialects we find forms so, sos, sa, sas, coming from *tpse*.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.⁸

120. In Vulgar Latin *ĕgo* lost its g (§ 55, G). The dative,

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¹Cf. Meyer-Lübke, Gram., II, p. 104.

²See Suchier in Grundriss, I, p. 627.

⁸Cf. A. von Elsner, Ueber Form und Verwendung des Personalpronomens im Altprovenzalischen, 1886.

mihi, was preserved only in its contracted form, $m\bar{i}$. After the pattern of $m\bar{i}$, $*t\bar{i}$ and $*s\bar{i}$ were created for the other persons.

121. Provençal has no nominative forms that are regularly unaccented. In the conjunctive forms of the third person (not reflexive), the direct object is distinguished from the indirect; elsewhere there is no such distinction.

CONJUNCTIVE FORMS.

122. Latin $m\bar{e} > me$, $m\bar{i} > mi$, $n\bar{o}s > nos$; $t\bar{e} > te$, $*t\bar{i} > ti$, $v\bar{o}s > vos$; $s\bar{e} > se$, $*s\bar{i} > si$. Me mi, te ti, se si, used as proclitics before a vowel, or as enclitics after a vowel, were reduced to m, t, s: m'ama, t'apela, s'es; om, be t, cosi s. Nos and vos, used as enclitics after a vowel, became respectively ns and us; que ns, no us; $s\bar{i}$ vos > sius, later sieus (§ 32). The forms (all objective) for the first and second persons and for the third person reflexive are, then: —

FIRST PERSON	SECOND PERSON	THIRD PERSON (REFLEXIVE)
Sg.: mẹ mi m	rte ti t	se si s
Pl.: nos ns	vos us	sẹ si s

1. The pronouns of the first and second persons could, of course, be used reflexively.

123. The conjunctive forms of the third person (not reflexive) come in the main from the proclitic *ille: illi*, *illum*, *illorum* (**illūrum*), *illos*, *illa*, *illas* became respectively li or lhi, lo, lor (lür), los, la, las. When used proclitically or enclitically, under the conditions described in § 118, (1), li (lhi), lo, los were reduced to 1 (lh), l, ls; and 1 was sometimes vocalized. $O < h \delta c$ was employed also, meaning 'it.' The adverb *inde* became ent en n (and, through the analogy of me m, te t, se s, also ne), which was often used as a pro-

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noun with the sense 'of it', 'of them', sometimes 'of him', 'of her'; nos en > non, vos en > von. The adverb $h\bar{i}c$ became i, meaning 'here' or 'there,' which served also as a dative pronoun, 'to it,' 'to them'; it was then always an enclitic, forming a diphthong with a preceding vowel; it regularly took the place of li in the constructions loi = lo li, lai = la li. The 'forms are: —

		М	ASCU	JLI	NE		1	FEMI	NIN	E				NEU	TER	
Sg. {	gen.: dat.:	ent li	ẹn lhi	n 1	nẹ lh	i	ent li	en lhi	n 1	nẹ lh	i		ent i	en	n	nę
(acc.:	lọ	1	u			la					1	lọ	1	6	
Pl. {	gen.: dat.: acc.:	ent lọr lọs	en lür ls	n		nę	ent lor las	en lür	n	nę						

I. Les for los is doubtless French. Los, ls were occasionally used for m. lor; lors, which occurs rarely for lor, looks like a cross between lor and los.

2. The following combinations illustrate the use of the enclitic forms: aura i, be i, e l, laissa n, no i, qui ll, si ls.

DISJUNCTIVE FORMS.

124. Vulgar Latin $*\check{e}o$ or $*\check{e}u > eu$ ieu (§ 30), which before an enclitic became e ie ($\widehat{e}l$, \widehat{ien}). The other forms explain themselves. The nominative tü, from the beginning of the 13th century, was sometimes used for te after prepositions; this use may have been suggested by the existence of $l\ddot{u} =$ 'him'; § 125, (1). Nos + en > non, vos + en > von.

FIRST PERSON	SECOND PERSON	THIRD PERSON (REFLEXIVE)
Sg. { nom.: eu ieu e- ie- obj.: me mi	tü	sę si
Pl. $\begin{cases} nom.: nos \\ obj.: nos \end{cases}$	vos vos	sę si

I. We find, besides, the French or borderland forms *ie iou iu yo* for *eu* (gi and *iey* have been noted also), *mei tei sei* for *me te se*.

125. The disjunctive pronouns of the third person (not reflexive) come from accented *ille*, with the exception of o from *höc. Illūi, illõrum, illæjus, illæi* lost their first syllable, perhaps through elision after a vowel; *illūjus* disappeared. *Ille*, **illī* gave el elh, il ilh; el sometimes vocalized its l. *Illūī* became lüi, in some dialects reduced to lü. *Illum* became el elh. *Illõrum* (**illūrum*) gave lor (lür). *Illos* became els (often eus) elhs. *Illa, illam* both gave ela elha. *Illæjus* became leis lieis (in some dialects reduced to lies).¹ *Illæi* gave lei (dialectically le) liei. *Illas* became elas elhas.

(2) In the feminine singular nominative there is, beside ela elha, a form ilh il. This is probably to be explained, like the feminine article lhi li, as coming from the masculine nominative *illī introduced into the feminine, and supported by the feminine possessive mi: see §118, (3).

(3) Some dialects preserve the final -i of eli (m. pl. nom.) and ilhi ili (f. sg. nom.): see §51, 1.

(4) Occasionally the conjunctive li (f. sg. obj.) and lo (neuter sg. nom.) were used as disjunctive forms. And sometimes the masculine lüi lü was used for the feminine.

(5) The forms are, therefore, the following: --

MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER
Sg. {nom.: el eu elh il ilh obj.: lüi lü el elh	ela elha ilh il ilhi ili	el lo
Sg. (obj.: lüi lü el elh	leis lieis lies lei liei le ela li lui lu	i ę
nom.: il ilh el elh eli	elas elhas	
Pl. $\begin{cases} nom.: \text{ il ilh el elh eli}\\ obj.: \text{ lor lür els eus elhs} \end{cases}$	lor lür elas elhas	

In many texts the objective forms els elhs, leis lei are used

¹Cf. Thomas in *Rom.*, XII, 334; Meyer-Lübke in *Gram.*, II, page 104. For a different explanation, see Ascoli in *Archivio glottologico italiano*, XV, 314, 396.

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in the nominative. We then find occasionally a new objective, elses.

Possessives.

126. Beside měus měa, tňus tňa, sňus sňa, there existed in popular Latin the shorter forms měs? ma, tňs *ta, sús sa. Of the two forms věster and vöster, only the latter was used. To supply the lack of a third person possessive denoting a plural possessor, *illorum* came to be employed as a possessive.

SINGULAR POSSESSIVE.

127. (1) The primarily atonic possessives come from the shorter Latin forms. The original masculine singular forms of the first person were displaced by mos mo, made on the analogy of tos to, so so, which come regularly from $*t \check{u}s$ $*t \check{u}m$, s $\check{u}s$, s $\check{u}m$; so in the objective plural we find mos, corresponding to tos $< *t \bar{o}s$, sos $< s \bar{o}s$. $M \check{e}\bar{i}$, $t \check{u}\bar{i}$, s $\check{u}\bar{i}$ gave mei, toi tüi, soi süi (§34), which, however, were often replaced by the objective forms. *Ma *mam *mas, *ta *tam *tas, sa sam sas became ma mas, ta tas, sa sas; ma, ta, sa often elided their a before a vowel. The formation of midons has been explained in §91, (2); §93, (2); §118, (3): from it came a feminine singular possessive mi, and, by analogy, ti and si.

(2) The forms are: ---

FIRST PERSON SECOND PERSON THIRD PERSON Sg. $\begin{cases} nom.: mos ma mi tos ta \\ obj.: mo mon ma mi to ton ta \end{cases}$ ti sos sa si ti so son sa si Pl. $\begin{cases} nom.: mei mos mas \\ obj.: mos mas \end{cases}$ toi tüi tos tas soi süi sos sas tos tas SOS sas

They are generally used only adjectively, and without the definite article. In some early texts, however, tos and sos, preceded by the article, are used substantively.

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128. (1) The primarily tonic possessives come from the longer Latin forms. Meus meum mei meos > meus meu mei meus, which regularly became mieus etc. (\S_{30}); an analogical form mieu is found beside miei. In the feminine of the first person we have, instead of * mea, mieua and mia: the first of these two forms is evidently made up from the masculine; the second may be due partly to the analogy of mi, partly to a proclitic use of the word (\$44, 4).¹ In the second and third persons the masculine forms are mainly, and the feminine forms partially, replaced by analogical formations based on the possessive of the first person; *tũi, sũi, tũa, sũa*, however, give regularly toi tüi, soi süi, toa tua, soa sua (\$8).

(2) The forms follow, those of the third person (which correspond exactly to those of the second) being omitted: —

FIRST PERSON

Sg.	(nom. :	męus mięus	mia mięua
	obj. :	męu mięu	mia mięua
Pl.	(nom. :	męi mięi mięu	mias mięuas
	obj. :	męus mięus	mias mięuas

SECOND PERSON

Sa (nom.:	tęus tięus tęu tięu	toa tua tieua tia				
obj.:	tęu tięu	tọa tua tiệua tia				
Pl. $\begin{cases} nom. : \\ obj. : \end{cases}$	tọi tũi tẹi tiẹi tiẹu tẹus tiẹus	toas tuas tieuas tias toas tuas tieuas tias				

They may be used adjectively or substantively, with or without the definite article.

I. We occasionally find a neuter sg. nom. form without final -s: lo mieu.

PLURAL POSSESSOR.

129. Nöster, vöster developed regularly after the pauper

¹ For a different explanation of *mia*, see *Gram.*, I, pp. 246-248; also Horning in *Zs.*, XXV, 341.

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model: \$103, (1). The masculine singular nominative often took an -s: cf. \$96; \$101, (1). Some southeastern dialects preserved the -i of nostri: cf. \$51, 1. Beside vostra we occasionally meet vostri, due to the analogy of feminine mi, ti, si.

		FIRST PER	SON	SECON	D PERSON	THIRD PERSON		
5.	(nom. :	nostre-s	nostra	vostre-s	vostra vostri	lọr lür	lọr lür	
og.	(obj.:	nostre	nostra	vostre	vostra vostri vostra vostri	lọr lür	lọr lür	
DI	(nom.:	nostre nostri	nostras	vǫstre	vostras vostras	lọr lür	lọr lür	
r 1.	(obj. :	nostres	nostras	vostres	vǫstras	lọr lür	lor lür	

These forms are used adjectively or substantively, with or without the definite article.

1. In later times *lor* came to be inflected like a one-gender adjective: § 103, (2).

DEMONSTRATIVES.

130. Latin *idem* went out of use. Latin *is* was preserved only in the phrase *id ipsum* (ad *id ipsum* > ades), and in the combination *ěccum*, in which it ceased to be recognized, so that *ěccu'* was regarded as a synonym of *ěcce*.

131. (1) The demonstrative particles *ècce* and *èccu'* were often prefixed to pronouns in Vulgar Latin. Being thus proclitically used, they frequently lost their first syllable (\$19); sometimes, however, under the influence of *ac* (as in *ac sic* > aissi), they preserved it, assuming the vowel of *ac*: *ecce illa* > aicela, *eccu' ista* > aquesta; cf. \$43, (2).

(2) The suffix *-met* was used in Vulgar Latin as an intensive prefix. Its change of place was probably due to such phrases as *sēmet ĭpsum*, understood as *sē metĭpsum*. The *-t*, before a vowel, regularly gives -d - (met-ipsum > medes); but we find, besides, -z - (< Lat. d), introduced perhaps through the analogy of *id* in *id ipsum* (**medĭpsum* > mezeis); and also

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-t- (< Lat. *tt*), which may be the result of a combination of *met*- and *id*- (*met-id-ipsum* > * *metdipsu* > meteis).

132. The pronouns preserved, either in their simple form or combined with a prefix, are the following: —

(1) Of $h\bar{\iota}c$ only the neuter, $h\bar{\iota}c$, was kept. $H\bar{\iota}c > 0$; ecce $h\bar{\iota}c > aiço aisso, and ço so; eccu' h\bar{\iota}c > aquo aco.$ All of these are invariable.

(2) Ipse appears as eps epsa, eus eussa, eis eissa (with a m. pl. eisses and a neuter eis); the last forms are the commonest; for the development of the *ps*, see §79 and §80, Ps. *Met-ĭpse* gives (medips) medes, (meteish) meteis, and, more commonly, mezeis (f. mezeissa, neuter mezeis); see §131, (2). **Met-ĭpsimus* becomes medesme-s, mesesme-s, meesme-s (§65, D), with feminine forms in -a. Unaccented *ipsum* is probably one source of the neuter so: cf. §132, (1). For the article (so, sa), see §119.

(3) Ille, uncombined, developed into an article (\$ 118) and a personal pronoun (\$\$ 123, 125), but went out of use as a demonstrative. Combined with *ecce* and *eccu*' it gave: aicel aissel, cel, sel; aquel. Echel (pronounced ekel?) seems to come from *eccu*' *ille* with its original initial vowel preserved. Ipse ille perhaps gave rise also to a sel, which ultimately coincided with the form coming from *ecce ille*. There is a neuter aicelo, perhaps aicel + ϕ . Cel will illustrate the inflection of all these words; the forms are to be explained like those of the disjunctive personal pronoun (\$ 125):—

MASCULINE

FEMININE

Sal	nom.:	cel	cẹu	celh	cels 1	cellüi	cela	celha	cil	cilh	cilha ²
og.	obj.:	cẹl	cẹu	celh	cellüi		cela	cẹlha	celęi	celeis	cilha ² celięis cilh

¹ Cels shows the influence of masculine nouns and adjectives.

² Aquel has also aquilli. Cilha is evidently a combination of cilh and celha.

FEMININE

	D	FEN	AININE		
P1.	(nom. : obj. :	cil cels	cilh cẹlh cẹls ¹ cẹlhs ²		celhas celhas

(4) Iste gave est, estz, esta, estas. Ecce iste became aicest (not common) and cest sest; eccu' iste became aquest echest, and chest. Aquest will illustrate the inflection; the forms are to be explained like those of cel: -

MASCULINE				FEMININE			
Sal	(nom.:	aquest aquest		aquesta	aquist	aquisti	
og. 1	(obj. :	aquest		aquesta			
PI	(nom. :	aquist aquestz	aquisti	aquestas			
1 1.	(obj. :	aquestz	aquetz	aquestas			

INTERROGATIVES AND RELATIVES.

133. The interrogative and relative pronouns were confused and combined in Vulgar Latin, qui taking the place of quis, and quid gradually encroaching on quod. Furthermore, the masculine forms were used instead of the feminine, which disappeared. We have in Provençal no evidence of the survival of any other cases than the nominative, dative, and accusative singular and the nominative plural: ---

MASCULINE AND F	EMININE	NEUTER		
(nom.: quī	> ģui	quid > que, (before vowel) quez		
Sg. $\begin{cases} nom.: qu\bar{\imath} \\ dat.: c\bar{\imath}i \\ acc.: quěm \end{cases}$	> cüi	<i>cūī</i> > cüi		
(acc.: quěm	>que	quid > que, (before vowel) quez		
Pl., nom.: quī	>qui	qua > que		

The distinction between que $< q u \check{e} m$, que que $< q u \check{e} d$, and que < quæ could not be maintained; we have, then, simply three forms: a nom. sg. or pl. qui, a nom.-acc. sg. or pl. que (quez), a dat. sg. or pl. cüi (sometimes written qui).

¹ Aquel has also aqueli.

² Aquel has also aquelz and aquelses.

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134. We have also *qualis*, which came to be inflected like fezels: see § 103, (2); the feminine singular, however, often dropped its -s, and sometimes took the ending -a (cal, cala). *Quinam* apparently became quina, which, understood as a feminine form, developed a masculine, quin. There seems to have been also a *quiniam (cf. quoniam?), which gave quinh, quinha. Cf. D. Behrens in the *Zeitschrift für französische Sprache*, XVII, ii, 67-8, footnote. The phrase *de unde* became dont, don, which was often used with the meaning 'of which', 'of whom'.

135. (1) In Provençal the interrogative pronouns are: qui, 'who 'or 'whom'; que quez, 'what'; ciii, 'to whom' or 'whom', 'to what' or 'what' (obj.); cals (either alone or preceded by the definite article, inflected as in § 134), 'which'; quin quinh, quina quinha, 'which'. Cals is used also as an adjective.

(2) The relative pronouns are: qui, 'one who', indefinite (used also, in early texts and in southwestern Languedoc, as the regular relative pronoun for persons); que quez, 'who' or 'whom', 'which'; cüi, 'whom', 'which' (generally used as indirect object of a verb, or after a preposition); lo cals (inflected as in § 134), 'who' ('whom'), 'which'; don dont, 'of which', 'of whom'.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

136. The following words call for special mention: ----

(1) Alcüs $< * alĭqu' \overline{u}nus = alĭqu\overline{u}nus$, 'someone'. Inflection: alcüs, alcü(n); alcüna.

(2) Alquant < aliquantum, aliquanti, 'somewhat', 'some'; diminutive, alquantet.

(3) Alques alque < aliquid, used as an invariable neuter

pronoun or adverb, 'something', 'somewhat'. The -s form, which originally developed before a vowel, was preferred because of the analogy of other neuter pronouns and adverbs. The preservation of the e is due to association with quez que. Alque was sometimes used as an adjective.

(4) Als al au, used as an invariable neuter pronoun, 'something else'. Al (au) may have been detached from alques, understood as al ques. Meyer-Lübke, however, takes it, as well as Old French el, from * alum = aliud: Gram., II, p. 649. Als owes its -s to the analogy of other neuter pronouns, such as alques, eis, mais, melhs, mens, peis, etc.

(5) Altre autre < alter, 'other', pronoun and adjective. A dative * $altr\bar{u}\bar{\imath}$, following $ill\bar{u}\bar{\imath}$, goes back to Vulgar Latin. The Provençal forms autrüs, autrü show the influence of alcüs and negüs; autri belongs to the southeastern dialects (cf. aqueli, eli, nostri, tüti, etc.). Inflection: —

MASCULINE					FE	MININE
Sa	nom.:	autre	autres	autrüs autrü		autra
og.	obj.:	autre	autrüi	autrü		autra
PI	(nom. : obj. :	autre	autri			autras
7 7.	obj.:	autres				autras

(6) Altretals autretals < alter talis; by dissimilation, atretals: by substitution of ai- (first syllable of aissi < ac sic) for atre-, aitals; by fusion of aitals and atretals, aitretals; through analogy of atressi, atrestals. Cf. § 74, 2. Inflection like that of cals (§ 134).

(7) Altretan atretan aitan atrestan etc. < alter + tantum: see altretals.

(8) Cada un $< \kappa \alpha \tau \dot{\alpha} + \bar{u}num$, 'every one'. The Greek preposition $\kappa \alpha \tau \dot{\alpha}$ was introduced into the Latin territory, probably by Greek merchants, in stating prices: $\kappa \alpha \theta' \ddot{e} v \alpha = cata \ \bar{u}num$,

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κατὰ τρεῖs = cata trēs; hence cada ün, cada trẹi. Inflection: cada üs, cada ü(n); cada üna.

(9) Calacom qualacom qualaquom, 'something', 'a little', seems to be a Provençal compound of cal and aco (\$ 132), the last syllable of which was perhaps understood as com co $< qu\bar{o}m\check{o}(do)$. Cf. quezacom below. There is a diminutive calacomet, which helped to maintain the m of calacom.

(10) Cals que quals que, cal que qual que, 'whoever', is a Provençal compound.

(11) Cant quant can quan < quantum quanti, 'how much', 'how many'. Cant, inflected like bel (§ 103), is used also as an adjective and as a masculine and feminine pronoun.

(12) Cascüs chascüs, 'everyone', 'every', appears to be a fusion of cada üs and *cescüs < * cisqu' $\bar{u}nus = qu$ isque $\bar{u}nus = \bar{u}nus qu$ isque. Inflection: cascüs, cascü(n); cascüna.

(13) Ent en n ne < inde, 'some': cf. § 123.

(14) Maint mant man manh < Celtic * manti, 'many', 'many a', 'many a one'. Obj. pl. in -s, f. sg. in -a, f. pl. in -as.

(15) Molt mout mot mul mon $< m \ddot{u} l t u m$, 'much'. For mot, mul, mon, see § 74, (2) and § 74, 1. Molt, inflected like bel (§ 103), is used also as an adjective and as a masculine and feminine pronoun.

(16) Negüs $< n \check{e} c \ \bar{u}nus$, 'no one'. Inflection: negüs, negü(n); negüna. Beside negün we find **degün**, apparently through dissimilation.

(17) Nüls $< n\bar{u}llus$, 'no', 'none'. Inflection: nüls, nül, nül nülh, nüls; nüla, nülas. From nülh $< n\bar{u}ll\bar{\iota}$ comes a set of forms with lh: see § 67, (2). Hence, by metathesis suggested by the analogy of negün, lhün. A fusion of nülh and lhün results in lünh, whence a set of forms with nh.

(18) **Om** < homo, 'one'.

(19) **Pauc** < *paucum*, *pauci*, 'little', 'few'. There is also a regular adjective, paucs, 'small'.

(20) Que que, 'whatever', is a Provençal compound.

(21) Quecs < quisquis (§ 78, 2), 'everyone'. From quecs were formed an objective quec and a feminine quega (cf. amics amic amiga).

(22) Quesacom (diminutive quesacomet), 'something', 'a little', is formed like calacom above, the first element in this case being either ques < quid or que s = que es.

(23) Qui que, 'whoever', is a Provençal compound.

(24) Res re, 'anything', 'something.

(25) Tals < talis, 'such', inflected like cals (§ 134).

(26) Tamanh < tam magnum, 'so great'; f. tamanha.

(27) Tant tan ta < tantum, tanti, 'so much', 'so many'. Tant, inflected like bel (§ 103), is used also as an adjective and as a masculine and feminine pronoun.

(28) Totz $\langle t \bar{o}ttus = t \bar{o}tus$ (Gram., I, § 547), 'all', had a regular inflection: totz, tot, tot, totz; tota, totas. In the masculine nominative plural, however, we find oftener the forms tüch tüich tüit tüt tüti, which point to a Latin $*t \bar{u}ct \bar{i}$ (cf. Italian *tutti*); for this no satisfactory explanation has been discovered (see Nigra, Rom., XXXI, 525). Hence we occasionally have in the singular tütz, tüt, and in the objective plural tügz tütz; the last form occurs also as a nominative plural. Tot is frequently used as a neuter pronoun and as an adverb.

(29) $\ddot{\mathbf{U}}$ s, 'some'; from $\bar{u}nus$, used as an indefinite adjective or pronoun, we have the plural forms: $\ddot{u}(n)$, $\ddot{u}(n)$ s; \ddot{u} nas.

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2. CONJUGATION.

THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS.

137. (1) In Vulgar Latin there were some shifts, the verbs of the second and third conjugations being particularly unstable: caděre, capěre, sapěre, for instance, often passed into the second, while movere, ridere frequently followed the third, and mori, sequi usually went into the fourth. Posse, velle, with the new infinitives * potere, * volere, were made to conform with more or less regularity to the second conjugation type. Beside do, dant, sto, stant, there came into use the forms * dao, * daunt, * stao, * staunt. Beside facere there doubtless existed a verb * fare,¹ strongly influenced by dare and stare; the first suggestion of shortening probably came from the monosyllabic imperative singular fac (or fa^2), which must have led to a plural * fate beside facite. Habere and vadere² also came under the influence of dare and stare; the former adopted, beside habeo, habes, habet, habent, the forms * ho, * has, * hat, * hant or * haunt. Vaděre generally lost its past tenses, which were replaced by *ire* and, in southern Gaul, by annare.8

(2) In Provençal the first conjugation was well preserved, and the fourth lost but little. The second and the third lost many verbs (especially learned words) to the fourth: delir, emplir, envazir, espandir, fugir, iauzir, merir, regir, relinquir, reluzir, vertir;⁴ cozer cozir < consuĕre,⁵ devire devezir < divīdĕre, dire dir < dīcĕre, leire legir (also lire lir) < lĕgĕre, querre querir < quærĕre, segre seguir < sĕqui, tener tenir⁶ < tenēre. More-

¹ See G. Rydberg, Le développement de facere dans les langues romanes, 1893.

²See A. Zimmermann in Zs., XXV, 735.

⁸See C. C. Rice in Publications of the Modern Language Association of America, XIX, 217.

4 Cf. §138.

5 Cf. §72, Sw.

⁶ According to Raimon Vidal, a 13th century grammarian, tenir is French.

over, the second and third conjugations, which in Provençal differed practically only in the infinitive, were much confused: caber, cazer, mordre, rire, saber; corre accorrer, mentaver mentaure < mente habēre, mover moure, querre querer, redebre rezemer < rediměre. Uc Faidit, a 13th century grammarian, enumerates about 500 verbs in -ar, about 100 in -er and -re, and a little over 100 in -ir.

138. The inchoative ending -scere lost its original sense. The -isc- type, for verbs of the fourth conjugation, was very widely extended, the -isc- becoming a part of the regular present stem of the fourth conjugation, and disappearing from the infinitive: finire, * finisco > finir, finisc. The Latin -esc- type, combining with -ire (dis-pigrescere > despereissir, evanescere > envanezir¹), produced an ending -eissir -ezir -zir, which was used in forming some new verbs: enfolezir² < fol, envelhezir < velh, envelzir < vil, esclarzir < clar, escürzir < escür oscür, espaorzir < paor. The -asc- and -osc- types appear only in such old verbs as irascere > iráisser, co(g)noscere > conoisser.⁸

139. New verbs were formed, in late Vulgar Latin and in Provençal, only in the first and fourth conjugations. The commonest suffixes were $-\bar{a}re$, $-i\bar{a}re$, $-ic\bar{a}re$, $idi\bar{a}re$ ($< l_{ev}$: §57, Z), $-\bar{i}re$: *oblītāre > oblidar, *altiāre > aussar, *carricāre > cargar, *werridiāre > guerreiar, *abbellīre > abelir. Germanic verbs generally went into the first conjugation, except those in -jan, most of which entered the fourth: roubôn > raubar (also raubir), wîtan > guidar; furbjan > forbir, raustjan > raustir.

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¹ Esvanuir seems to come from the perfect, evanui.

² Enfolhetir shows the influence of follet.

⁸See K. Sittl in Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie und Grammatik, I, 465

FUNDAMENTAL CHANGES IN INFLECTION.

140. The Latin perfect passive took the sense of a present; amātus est, for instance, under the influence of such phrases as carus est, came to mean 'he is loved'. This led to the establishment of an entire passive inflection made up of the perfect participle and the parts of the verb *ĕsse*; and the old passive forms were gradually abandoned, leaving no trace (save the perfect participle and possibly the gerundive) in the Romance languages. So the passive is constructed in Provençal as in French: es amatz, era amatz, fo amatz, será amatz, etc.; the participle regularly agrees with the subject in gender and number. Latin deponent verbs became active: $m \breve{ori} > morir, s\breve{equi} > seguir.$

141. (1) Such phrases as *id habeo factum* shifted their meaning from 'I have it done', etc., to 'I have done it', etc. The Latin perfect came to be restricted to its aorist sense, and the perfect was expressed by compounds of *habēre* with the perfect participle. In the Romance languages all compound tenses were eventually formed in this way: ai cantat, avia cantat, aurai cantat, etc. In Provençal the auxiliary is sometimes esser, instead of aver, if the main verb is reflexive, passive, or neuter; esser is particularly common with neuter verbs of motion: soi vengütz.¹ A participle used with aver may agree in gender and number with the direct object, if there is one: ai cantat or cantada la canso.

(2) The Latin perfect indicative continued to be used as an aorist, and is the source of the preterit in Provençal, as in

¹ For *ai estat* we sometimes find *soi agutz*. The confusion arises perhaps from the use of both *es* and *a* in the sense of 'there is': hence *es estat* = *a agut*; and by a mixture of the two, *es agut*. Cf. L. Gauchat, *Sono avuto*, in *Scritti vari di filologia* (dedicated to E. Monaci), 1901, p. 61.

the other Romance languages: $v\bar{v}d\bar{i} > vi$, 'I saw'. The pluperfect indicative survived in some regions; in Provençal it is used with the sense of a conditional: $f\bar{u}\bar{e}rat > fora$, 'he would be'. The future perfect indicative and the perfect subjunctive did not remain in Provençal: $amav\bar{e}ro = aurai$ amat, $amav\bar{e}rim = aia$ amat. The pluperfect subjunctive assumed the functions of the imperfect, which disappeared from nearly every part of the Romance territory: $aud\bar{i}ssem$ (for $aud\bar{i}rem$) > auzis. The perfect infinitive left no trace: $aud\bar{i}sse = aver$ auzit.

142. The Latin future, which was not uniform in the four conjugations, and, in the third and fourth, was liable to confusion with the present subjunctive, was gradually replaced by various periphrastic constructions: instead of *faciam* people said *factūrus sum*, *dēbeo facĕre*, *vŏlo facĕre*, *habeo (ad) facĕre*, etc. The construction that prevailed in the greater part of the Empire was *facĕre habeo*, a combination of the infinitive with the present indicative of *habēre*. The verb *ĕsse* was the only one that ultimately retained the old future beside the new: Pr. er, ers, er, beside serái serás será; in the plural, only serem, seretz, serán. The new composite future was occasionally used by Tertullian, St. Jerome, and St. Augustine, and became common in Italy by the 6th century.¹

(2) As an imperfect of the future, there was evolved a combination of the infinitive and the imperfect or perfect indicative. To correspond to $d\bar{i}cit$ quod venire habet, was constructed $d\bar{i}xit$ quod venire habebat (or habuit); to match $s\bar{i}$ possum, venire habeo, was made $s\bar{i}$ potuissem, venire habebam (or habui). In Gaul, as in most of the Empire, only the imperfect of habere was used for this purpose. Traces of such

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¹Cf. P. Thielmann, Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie und Grammatik, II, 48 and 157.

a construction are found as early as the 3d century. This form is generally called the *conditional*, and it existed in Provençal side by side with the conditional described in \$141, (2): sería, serías, sería, etc., beside fora, foras, fora, etc. The Romance languages developed also a perfect conditional: auría agüt = 'I should have had'.

143. (1) The present participle remained in use as an adjective: *filias placentes* > filhas plazens; cf. § 101, (3). In its verbal function it was replaced by the ablative of the gerund: *věnit accŭrrens* > *věnit accŭrrendo* > ven acorren. In most Provençal dialects, however, the present participle and the gerund coincided in form (*amantem* and *amando* both > amán), the gerund being distinguished from the participle only by its lack of inflection: see § 76, (2).

(2) The gerund retained only the ablative case, the use of which was considerably extended: see above. In its other cases it was replaced by the infinitive: artem $d\bar{i}cend\bar{i} > artem$ $d\bar{i}c\bar{c}re > art$ de dire. The supine, too, was replaced by the infinitive: $v\bar{i}sum$ $v\bar{e}nit$ $n\bar{o}s > v\bar{e}nit$ $n\bar{o}s$ $v\bar{i}d\bar{e}re >$ ven nos (a) vezer.

INFINITIVE, PRESENT PARTICIPLE, AND GERUND.

144. The infinitive endings $-\bar{a}re$, $-\bar{e}re$, $-\bar{i}re$ regularly became -ar, -er, -ir; $-\bar{e}re$ became -re or -er: see § 48, (1) and § 52, (1). Ex.: $am\bar{a}re > am\dot{a}r$, $v\bar{i}d\bar{e}re > vezer$, $aud\bar{i}re > auzir$; $i\bar{o}ll\bar{e}re >$ tolre, nascere > naisser, $d\bar{i}cere > dire$ dízer. For shifts of conjugation, see § 137.

I. The fourth conjugation verbs enantir, gauzir, grazir, murir, servir sometimes took a final e by the analogy of devire ($\langle div\bar{u}d\check{e}re \rangle$, dire, rire. On the other hand, dire occasionally lost its -e by the analogy of the fourth conjugation. Lire for leire ($\langle l\check{e}g\check{e}re \rangle$) is probably French, and lir is to be explained like dir.

2. Far beside faire doubtless comes from *fare = facěre : see § 137, (1). Trar beside traire (<*tragěre) follows far.

3. Escriure (< scrīběre) sometimes became escrire through the analogy of dire.

4. Some verbs that passed from the second to the third conjugation preserved the old infinitive as a noun: debēre > deure devér, placēre > plaire plazēr.

145. The endings -antem -ando, -entem -endo regularly became -an or -ant, -en or -ent: § 76, (2). See § 143, (1). The endings -ientem -iendo lost their i in Vulgar Latin (§ 40, 1), and were thus reduced to -entem -endo. Ex.: amantem amando > amán (or amánt), videntem videndo > vezen (or vezent), credentem credendo > crezen (or crezent); sapientem sapiendo > * sapentem * sapendo > sabén (or sabént), partientem partiendo > * partentem * partendo > partén (or partént). Fourth conjugation verbs which adopted the inchoative -sc-(§ 138), generally introduced it into the present participle and the gerund: florir, florissen. Cf. § 155. For the declension of the present participle, see § 101, (3).

PAST PARTICIPLE.

146. The Provençal past participle comes from the Latin perfect participle. It is to be noted that verbs which originally had no perfect participle were obliged to create one in order to form their compound tenses: see § 141, (1). Past participles in Provençal, when inflected, were declined like bel: §§ 102; 102, 1; 103, (1). See § 141, (1).

147. In the first and fourth conjugations the endings were $-\bar{a}tum$ and $-\bar{i}tum$, which regularly became $-\bar{a}t$ and $-\bar{i}t$: cantātum > cantāt, finītum > fenít. The first conjugation verbs which had a form in $-\bar{i}tum$ discarded it for $-\bar{a}tum$: crepāre crēpītum = crebár crebát. On the other hand, aperīre and

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operīre preserved their participle in $-\check{e}rtum$: cubrir (< cooperire), cubert (also cubrít); ubrír (< aperīre + cooperīre), ubert. By the analogy of these, sufrir (< suffĕrre) and ufrir (< offĕrre) have sufert (also sufrít), ufert. Tener tenir keeps its Provençal second conjugation ending, tengüt (see § 148); and venir, following the analogy of tenir, has vengüt.

148. (1) Most Latin verbs of the second and third conjugations had no accented ending, but a few had an ending $-\bar{u}tum$, which corresponded very well to the $-\bar{a}tum$ and $-\bar{i}tum$ of the first and fourth: arguěre, argūtum; consuěre, consūtum; sequi, secūtum; solvěre, solūtum; volvěre, volūtum. This ending was considerably extended in Vulgar Latin, especially to verbs having a perfect in $-\bar{u}\bar{i}$: habēre, habŭī, habītum * habūtum. In Provençal it spread still further: cazer, cazec, cazegüt. Inasmuch as it was closely associated with the perfect, it came to be attached, more and more frequently, to the stem of that tense.

(2) Of the Provençal verbs of the second and third conjugations, about half adopted the ending -üt. In some the -üt is added to the stem of the infinitive: crezüt, defendüt, escondüt, molüt, perdüt, resemüt, respondüt, rompüt, vendüt, vezüt veüt. Most of the verbs, however, attach the -üt to the stem of the preterit; nasc, nascüt; pasc, pascüt; tems, temsüt; tesc, tescüt; venc, vencüt (from venser); visc, viscüt. A few have both forms: agüt avüt; cazegüt cazüt; vengüt venüt. It is to be noted, in the case of verbs that add -üt to the preterit, that if the third person singular of the preterit ends in a voiceless consonant preceded by a vowel or 1 or n, that consonant is voiced in the participle: ac, agüt; bec, begüt; cazec, cazegüt; conoc, conogüt; crec, cregüt; dec, degüt; elec, elegüt; moc, mogüt; noc, nogüt; plac, plagüt; ploc, plogüt; poc, pogüt; remas, remazüt; saup, saubüt; sec, següt; tenc, ten-

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güt; tolc, tolgüt; valc, valgüt; venc, vengüt (from venir); volc, volgüt. Exceptions are ceupüt, saupüt (beside saubüt), and vencüt (from venser): for ceupüt, saupüt, cf. § 65, P, 3; in vencüt the c was perhaps kept to distinguish the word from vengüt (venir).

(3) The other half of the second and third conjugation verbs generally preserved the old participle with no accented ending: ars, ceing, claus, dich, düit, estreit, fach, ioinch, mes, onh, post, pres, trach, etc. Some of these have also forms in --üt: defes defendüt, elig esleit elegüt, escos escondüt, mout molüt, nat nascüt, remas remazüt, rot rompüt, vis vezüt. A few verbs made up new forms without a stressed ending: conquerre, conques conquis; redemer rezemer, redems (rezemüt); sorger, sors; tolre, tolt tout; vezer, vist (vis vezüt veüt); volvre, vout. Mittere probably had beside missum a form * mīsum (cf. mīsī); hence metre, mes mis. By the analogy of this, prendre has beside pres a form pris. Estre borrowed estát from estar < stare. Escriut, from escriure, is probably influenced by the infinitive; escrich follows dich. So, probably, does elig = esleit, from elegir eslire.

1. For soi agütz (= ai estat), which is found not only in some Provençal dialects, but also in southeastern France, French Switzerland, and parts of northern Italy, see § 141, (I), footnote 1.

FUTURE AND NEW CONDITIONAL.

149. For the formation of these parts, see § 142, (1), (2). Ex.: amarái, creisserái, florirái. Verbs of the second conjugation regularly, and verbs of the fourth very often, syncopate the e or i of the infinitive: remanrái, volrás; partrái, venría. Third conjugation infinitives with final e drop this e before the ending; those in –er keep the e: vendre, vendrái; náisser, naisserái. First conjugation infinitives regularly keep the a

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(§ 45), but in a few texts (especially the *Girart* and the *Rasos de trobar*) the a is changed to e: cantarái, sonaría, trobarem; blasmerán, comterá.

I. Esser keeps the old future forms er, ers, er, beside serái, serás, será (serém, serétz, serán).

150. For the phonetic changes exemplified in auría, deurái, mourá; plairía; cairá, veirái; valdrái; remandrém, tendría; poiría, see § 70, β r, C'r, Dr, Lr, Nr, Tr. Anar (< annāre) has beside anarái a form irái from ir (< $\bar{i}re$). Esser drops its first syllable (serái), perhaps through elision (tu 'sserás, etc.), perhaps in accordance with the general principle stated in § 19. Faire far always makes its future and conditional from the latter form (farái). Saber has beside sabrái a form saubrái, due no doubt to the combined influence of aurái and the preterit saup < sapuit. Vezer, following the analogy of beurái, deurái, viurái, has veurái beside the regular veirái.

151. The composite nature of the future and conditional was still sufficiently felt, in the literary period, to admit of the separation of the component parts: amar vos ái, dar n'etz, donar lo t'ái, tornar nos em, tornar s'en ía.

FUTURE ENDINGS.

152. For the 1st pers. sg., the Provençal verb used the form *ayo > ai (§ 73, βy); for the 2d and 3d pers. sg. and the 3d pers. pl., the forms *has > as, *hat > a (§ 82, T), *hant *haunt > an aun (§ 83, Nt): see § 137, (1). In the 1st and 2d pers. pl., $hab\bar{e}mu'$ (§ 82, S, 2), $hab\bar{e}tis$ naturally gave avem, avetz (§ 64); but inasmuch as the other four terminations were monosyllabic, the av- was dropped when avem, avetz came to be understood merely as future endings. The future is, therefore, inflected as follows:—

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cantar-ái	cantar-em
cantar-ás	cantar-etz, -es, -et
cantar-á	cantar-án, -ánt, -áun, -áu

In Gascony and Languedoc we find -ei for -ai: see §§23, 2; 162,
 (4). In Gascon and in the modern dialects of some other regions -am is used for em. In some dialects of Béarn, Languedoc, Provence, and Dauphiné, -em becomes -en: cf. § 65, M, 1; also § 167, 2.

CONDITIONAL ENDINGS.

153. $Hab\bar{c}bam > a\beta \in \beta a > ($ probably through dissimilation: § 87, β) $a\beta \in a > avia$ (§ 26); so avias, avia, aviam, aviatz, avian. But inasmuch as the conditional was formed in imitation of the future, and none of the future forms retained the av-, the conditional endings were reduced to -ia, -ias, -ia, -iam, -iatz, -ian. Some dialects, which substituted -on for -an, introduced -ion into the conditional: § 169. The conditional is, therefore, inflected as follows:—

cantar-ía	cantar-iám
cantar-ías	cantar-iátz, -iás, -iát
cantar-ía	cantar-ían, -íon, -ío

1. In verse these endings are sometimes counted as monosyllabic: poiriâ. Guiraut Riquier uses -íatz for -iátz. In some dialects of Béarn, Languedoc, Provence, and Dauphiné, -iám becomes -ián: cf. § 65, M, 1; also § 167, 2.

PRESENT.

154. The personal endings will be discussed separately in §§ 164-169.

155. The Provençal present indicative and subjunctive come, in the main, directly from the corresponding parts of the Latin verb:—

amo > am	amāmu'> amā	im <i>faciam</i> > fassa	faciāmu' > fassám
amas > amas	amātis > amā	atz facias > fassas	s faciātis > fassátz
amat > ama	amant > áma	an <i>faciat</i> > fassa	faciant > fássan

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In the 4th conjugation, however, most verbs have adopted the originally inchoative -sc- (§ 138) and incorporated it into the inflection of the present, except in the 1st and 2d pers. pl. of the indicative:—

florisco	>	florísc	florēmu'	>	florem ¹
florīscis	>	florís florísses	florētis	>	florętz ¹
floriscit	>	florís	floriscunt	>	floríscon
floriscam	>	florísca	floriscāmu'	>	floriscám
floriscas	>	floríscas	floriscātis	>	floriscátz
floriscat	>	florísca	floriscant	>	floríscan

We occasionally find such forms as florissem, florissetz, and florám, florátz.

1. The s coming from sc' was of course originally palatal; it is sometimes written sh. The sc of the 1st pers. sg., the 3d pers. pl., and the whole pres. subjunctive was replaced, in some dialects, by s or sh: floris florish, florisson florishon, florissa florisha.

156. Of the Latin imperative forms, only the present active, 2d pers. sg. and pl., remained in use. The Provençal verb kept the sg., but substituted for the pl. the 2d pers. pl. of the present indicative:—

ama	> ama	těne	> ten	crēde	> crę
amāte amātis	> amátz	tenēte tenētis	> tenetz	crēdĭte	*crēdītis ² >crezetz
part	tī	> part	fīn	isce	> finís
part	tīte partītis	> partetz ²	fini	ite finiti:	$s > \text{finet} z^2$

In negative commands the present subjunctive is generally used instead of the plural imperative, and sometimes the infinitive is employed instead of sg. or pl. The verbs auzir, aver, dire, esser, saber, vezer, voler regularly took their imperative forms from the present subjunctive: áuias, digátz, veiátz, etc.

¹ For the accented vowels in these forms, see §§ 167, 168.

² See § 168.

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I Fait < facile (beside faitz) seems to come directly from the Latin form.

2. Before vos the pl. drops final -tz (or -t?): departe vos, vene vos. Ve vos becomes veus; a fusion of ve vos and ec < eccum results in vecvos.

DOUBLE STEMS.

157. Differences in accentuation and in the environment of vowels or consonants regularly developed different stems in different parts of some verbs. For instance, $ddj\bar{u}t\bar{a}re >$ aidar (§ 45), while $adj\bar{u}tat >$ aiüda.

158. Sometimes, as above, an intertonic vowel disappeared: mándūcåre>maniar, mandūco>*mandüc manüc; *parabolāre *páraulåre>parlar, *parabŏlat *paraulat>paraula. In such cases the shortened stem usually prevailed: mania, parla. But in adjutare the longer one was preferred: aiüdar.

159. (1) A vowel which breaks in one part of a verb may be unstressed, and therefore remain unbroken, in another part: $prob\bar{a}re > proar$, $pr\bar{o}bat > prueva$,⁸ *sequire > seguir, *sequit > siec.⁴ In such cases the phonetic development is generally undisturbed.

(2) A vowel which breaks in one part of a verb may, with different environment, remain unbroken even in another part in which it is stressed: *volēre > voler, *vŏleo > vuelh, *vŏlet > vol. If the breaking occurs in the 1st pers. sg., the phonetic development is regularly undisturbed; if it occurs in the 2d and 3d pers. sg., it is generally carried into the other forms in which the vowel is stressed: $c\breve{olligit} >$ cuelh, hence cuelh = $colligo; \check{exit} >$ ieis, hence iesc, iescon, iesca.

160. A consonant may be followed by e or i, and so pala-

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talized, in one part of the verb, and not in another: *cadeo >chai, *cadēmu' > chazem; $d\bar{e}beo >$ dech dei (§ 73, β y), $d\bar{e}bet >$ deu; faciat > fassa, facěre > faire; fŭgio > füi, fugěre > fugir; jaceam > iassa, jacēre > iazer¹; placeāmu' > plassám, placēmu' >plazem; sapiam > sapcha, sapit > sap; těneo > tenh, těnet >ten; valeo > valh, vales > vals; věniat > venha, venīre > venir; videam > veia, vidētis > vezetz; *võleo > vuelh, *võlet > vol. Verbs in -eo generally keep this distinction; but we find mova, somóna, tema = mõveam, submõneam, timeam. Most verbs in -io, on the other hand, dropped the i in Vulgar Latin: partio * parto > part, partiunt * partunt > parton, partiam * partam > parta; sen, senton, senta; sierf, siervon, sierva; etc. A few verbs show forms both with and without the e or i: audio > auch (audiam > auia), * audo > au; crēdo > cre, *crēdeo > crei²; video > vei², *vido > ve.

161. Verbs in -ng- naturally developed a palatal consonant before e or i (§ 73, Ng'), but not before other vowels: cingere > cenher, cingo > cenc, cingit > cenh, cingam > cenga; so fenher, onher, plánher, ponher, etc. The palatal was carried by analogy into the parts that were originally without it: hence the double forms cenc cenh, cengon cenhon, cenga cenha, etc. These double forms led tener, venir to adopt tenc, venc, tenga, venga, beside the regular tenh, venh, tenha, venha. Such forms as these, supported by derc $< de - \bar{e}rigo$, dic $< d\bar{i}co$, prec $< pr\bar{c}co$, sec < * sequo, trac < * trago, etc., afforded a starting-point for an ending -c, adopted by some other verbs in the 1st pers. sg. of the present indicative: $p\bar{e}rdo < pert perc$, $pr(eh)\bar{e}ndo > pren prenc, remaneo > remanh$ remanc, etc.

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¹ Also, by analogy, *iassér*.

² Raimon Vidal says that *crei*, *vei* are the proper forms for the 1st pers. sg. of the pres. indicative.

PECULIAR FORMS.

162. The following verbs have individual peculiarities that call for special mention:—

(1) Anar (< annāre), 'to go', takes most of its present from vaděre: indicative, vau vauc (analogy of estau estauc), vas, va vai (analogy of fai), anám, anátz, van vaun (analogy of estan estaun); subjunctive, an or vaza (< vadam) vaia (analogy of vai and of traia), vaga (analogy of traga), etc.; imperative, vai (analogy of fai), anátz.

(2) Aucire (< occīděre: § 43) has in the pres. indicative 3d sg. auci (< occīdit) and aucis (analogy of aucizém, aucizétz). Cf. auzir, caire, rire, traire, vezér. These forms were doubtless helped by the analogy of ditz (< dīcit), dütz, fatz, iatz, letz (< licet), platz, tatz.

(3) Auzir ($< aud \tilde{i}re$) has in the pres. indicative 3d sg. au (< audit) and aus (analogy of auzém, auzétz). Cf. aucire, caire, rire, traire, vezér. See also § 160.

(4) Aver ($\langle hab\bar{e}re \rangle$ has in the pres. indicative: ai ($\langle habeo: \S 73, \beta \gamma$), as, a, avém, avétz (see §§ 167, 168), an aun; see § 137, (1). There is no trace of *ho. Instead of ai, the dialects of Aude, Tarn, Tarn et Garonne, and Haute-Garonne have ei (cf. Gram., II, p. 304), which probably developed first in the future (§ 152, 1) through the analogy of the preterit ending -ei which took the place of -ai: $am\bar{a}vi * amai > * amai amei$ (§ 175), then amarai > amarei, then ai > ei. The pres. subjunctive is aia ($\langle ha$ $beam: \S 73, \beta \gamma$). For the imperative, see § 156.

(5) Caire cazér (< caděre *caděre) has in the pres. indicative 3d sg. ca (< cadit) cai (analogy of brai < *bragit, fai, trai < *tragit, vai) cas (analogy of cazém, cazétz: cf. aucire, auzir, rire, traire, vezér).

(6) Conóisser (< cognoscere) has in the pres. indicative 1st sg. conosc (< cognosco) and conóis (analogy of 2d and 3d sg., conóisses, conóis).

(7) Creire (< crēděre): pres. subjunctive creza (< crēdam) and crega (analogy of diga, prega, sega, traga). See also § 160.

(8) Créisser (< crēscěre): pres. subjunctive cresca (< crēscam) and crega (analogy of diga, prega, sega, traga, and of the imperfect subjunctive cregués).

(9) Dar (< dare): dau (< * dao), daun (< * daunt); see § 137, (1).

(10) Destruire (<* destrügëre = destruëre): analogy of agëre, tëgëre, etc.
 Cf. traire. * Destrügit > destrüi.

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(11) Dever (< debēre) has in the pres. indicative 1st sg., beside dech dei
 (§ 160), dec (analogy of dic, prec, sec, trac, and perhaps of the preterit dec).

(12) Dire $(\langle d\bar{i}c\bar{e}re\rangle)$: dic $(\langle d\bar{i}co\rangle)$ diu (cf. § 51, 3; § 65, G, 1); ditz ($\langle d\bar{i}cit\rangle$) di (analogy of fai, trai, and of imperative $di \langle d\bar{i}c\rangle$; dizon (analogy of ditz, dizém, dizétz); diga dia (both $\langle d\bar{i}cam$: § 65, G). For the imperative, see § 156.

(13) Düire (< dūcěre): dütz (< dūcit) düi (analogy of destrüi, trai).

(14) Eissir (< exire): iesc, iescon, iesca, analogy of conosc, florisc, etc.; for vowel, see § 159, (2).

(15) Ésser estre (<**ěssěre* = *ěsse*). Pres. indicative: *sům* > son so (§ 82, M), then, by the analogy of *ai* and *füi*, soi süi; *ěs* became est iest, perhaps through *ěs tu* > es-t-u > est-tü, supported by the analogy of the preterit ending of the 2d sg. (vos vendetz, tü vendest or vendiest, so, to match vos etz, a form tü est or iest); *ěst* became es, probably through such combinations as que's (understood as qu'es); *simu*', which existed in Latin beside *sümus* (*Rom.*, XXI, 347), gave sem, while from *ëstis* there was constructed an **ësmus* > esmes (rare), and from etz a form em (very common); *ëstis* > estz etz (§ 78, 2); *sünt* > son so (§ 83, Nt). Pres. subjunctive: *sim*, *sīs*, etc., were replaced in V. L. by **siam*, **sias*, etc. (on the analogy of *fiam*, *faciam*, etc.), which gave sía sías sía síam siátz, sían síon; we find also seia, etc., formed apparently on *deia*, *veia*. Imperative borrowed from subjunctive.

(16) Estar (< stare). Pres. indicative: estáu (< *stao) estáuc (§ 161);
estás (< stas); está (< stat) estái (analogy of fai, trai); estám (< stamu);
estátz (< statis) estáitz (after faitz); están (< stant) estáun (< *staunt); see
§ 137, (1). Pres. subjunctive: estía, etc., estéia, etc., patterned on sia, seia;
also estéi, perhaps a cross between esteia and *esté < stem. Imperative:
está, estáitz.

(17) Faire far ($\langle facðre * fare$): § 137, (1). Pres. indicative: fatz ($\langle facio$) fau (analogy of dau, estau) fac fauc (§ 161); fas ($\langle *fas$); fatz ($\langle facit$) fa ($\langle *fat$) fai (influence of faire, faim, faitz, and of trai); faim ($\langle facimu$ ': § 167, 1) fam ($\langle *famu$ ') fazém (see fazétz); faitz ($\langle facitis$) fatz ($\langle *fat$) fazétz (analogy of regular verbs, crezétz, etc.); fan ($\langle *fant$) faun (analogy of daun, estaun). Pres. subjunctive: faça fassa, etc. ($\langle fa$ ciam, etc.). Imperative: fai ($\langle fac$); fatz faitz (borrowed from indicative) fait ($\langle facite$).

(18) Iazér (< jacere), also iassér (influence of ias < iatz < jacet, and of

iassa?): iatz (<jacet) iai (analogy of fai, trai); iassa (<jaceam) iaia (analogy of traia, vaia).

(19) Movér móure (< movère * movère): mova (< * movam = moveam) moga (analogy of traga).

(20) Partir (< partire): part (< *parto = partio) parc (§ 161); so parta parga.

(21) Perdre (< përdëre): pert perc, perda perga; see § 161.

(22) Plazér plaire (< placere * placere): platz (< placet) plai (analogy of fai, trai); plassa (< placeam) plaia (analogy of traia, vaia).

(23) Podér (<*potère = pösse): see § 137, (1). Pres. indicative: posc (<pössum influenced by cognosco) puosc puesc (analogy of puoc puec < pötui), puecs (?<*pots <*pötsum + puesc), pois (<*pösseo); potz (<pötes); pot (<*pötet = pötest); podém (<*potēmu'); podétz (<*potētis); póden (<*potent) pódon, pon (analogy of potz, pot, and son < sünt). Pres. subjunctive: posca puesca puesca (like posc puesc), etc.; poissa (<*pösseam), etc.

(24) Prendre (prëndëre = prehëndëre) penre (see § 71, end): pren (<prëndo) prenh (analogy of tenh, venh) prenc (§ 161); so prenda prenha prenga.

(25) Rire (< *rīděre): ri (< rīdet) ritz (analogy of rizém, rizétz: cf. aucire, auzir, caire, traire, vezér); ria (< rīdeam?).

(26) Sabér (< *sapēre): see § 137, 1. Pres. indicative: sai sei (analogy of ai ei from avér); saps; sap; sabém (< *sapēmu'); sabétz (< *sapētis); sáben (< *sapent) sábon. Pres. subjunctive: sapcha (< sapiam). Imperative from subjunctive.

(27) Tazér taire (< tacère * tacère): tatz (< tacet) tai (analogy of taire and of fai, trai).

(28) Tenér (< tenère): tenh (< těneo) tenc (§ 161); so tenha tenga.

(29) Traire (<*tragëre, perhaps also *tracëre,=trahëre): trac (<*trago or *traco) trai (§ 63, 6)¹; trai (<*tragit) tra (analogy of da, esta, fa, va) tratz (<*tracit?: cf. aucire, auzir, caire, rire, vezér); trázon (analogy of tratz); traga traia (both <*tragam).</p>

(30) Vezér (< vidēre) : vei (< video) vec (§ 161); ve (< videt) ves (analogy of vezém, vezétz: cf. aucire, auzir, caire, rire, traire). Imperative from subjunctive.

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¹According to Raimon Vidal, trac is the only correct form.

PROVENÇAL MORPHOLOGY.

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(31) Volér (< *volēre = vēlle): see § 137, (1). Pres. indicative: vuelh
 (< *volēo); vols (< *volēs); vol (< *võlet); volém (< *volēmu')¹; volétz
 (< *volētis); volon (< *völent). Pres. subjunctive: vuelha (< *võleam),
 vuelhas, vuelha, vulhám, vulhátz, vuelhan. Imperative from subjunctive.

163. In verse the present subjunctive ending -ia sometimes counts as one syllable: siatz. Cf. § 153, 1.

PERSONAL ENDINGS².

164. (1) In the first person singular final -o and -em regularly disappeared: amo > am, amem > am. When, however, the -o or -em was preceded by a consonant group requiring a supporting vowel (§ 52), the ending was regularly retained as -e: dubito > dopte, suffero > suffre, tremulem > tremble.

Through the analogy of ai, crei, dei, soi, vei, and the 1st pers. sg. of the preterit, this -e was in the indicative generally changed at an early date to -i: *cŏpĕro > cobre cobri, *opĕro > obre obri; so *impleo* **implo* > ompli. This -i (occasionally -e) was then taken as a distinctive ending of the 1st pers. sg., and was added to many verbs that needed no supporting vowel: auzir, au auze; azorar, azor azori; cantar, can canti; corre, cor corri; metre, met meti; prezar, pretz prezi; remirar, remir remire remiri; respondre, respon respondi; sentir, sen senti; vendre, ven vendi.

In the subjunctive, when a final vowel was required, -e was usually kept; it was also extended to some verbs that did not need it: acabe, done, mire, plore. Very rarely an unnecessary -i was added instead of -e: laissar, lais laissi.

(2) The ending -am regularly gave -a: audiam > auia.

¹ Volemus occurs repeatedly in 7th century Latin.

² Cf. O. Schmidt, Ueber die Endungen des Præsens im Altprovenzalischen, 1887.

165. In the second person singular final -as regularly remained, and $-\bar{e}s$ and $\bar{t}s$ became -s (or, when a supporting vowel was required, -es): amas > amas; $val\bar{e}s > vals$, $sap\bar{t}s >$ saps, $part\bar{t}s > partz$; $d\bar{u}b\bar{t}t\bar{e}s > doptes$. Cf. § 82, S. Sometimes, especially in late texts, -s is expanded into -es: canz cantes, partz partes, saps sabes, vals vales; so floris florisses, etc.

Final -a remained, and $-\tilde{e}$ and $-\tilde{i}$ fell: ama > ama, $t\tilde{e}ne >$ ten, $cr\bar{e}de > cre$, $part\bar{i} > part$.

166. In the third person singular final -at became -a, -et and -it fell (but remained as -e when a supporting vowel was needed): amat > ama, amet > am, tenet > ten te, venit > ven ve; tremulet > tremble. Cf. § 82, T.

167. In the first person plural the final -s disappeared early, s being perhaps regarded as a distinctively second person ending¹. The rare form esmes $= s \tilde{u} m u s$ is the only one that retains the s: cf. § 162, (15).

Then $-\bar{a}mu'$, $-\bar{e}mu'$ gave regularly -am, -em: $cant\bar{a}mus >$ cantám, $hab\bar{e}mus > avem$. Likewise $-\bar{e}mu'$, through the analogy of $-\bar{a}mu'$, $-\bar{e}mu'$, came to take the accent on its penult, and then regularly developed into -em: credimus * credimu' >crezem. This -em of the second and third conjugations passed into the fourth, and entirely displaced the -im that would have been the regular representative of $-\bar{e}mu'$: partimus >* partím partem.

In faim < facimu' the old accentuation apparently survives: cf. § 52,
 (4), I.

2. In some dialects of Béarn, Languedoc, Provence, and Dauphiné, -m apparently becomes -n: devén, havén, volén; so aurián, trobarén, segrián (cf. § 152, 1; § 153, 1). Cf. § 65, M, 1.

¹ The loss of -s is not confined to the Provençal territory: it occurs also in western France, Catalonia, and the Engadine.

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168. In the second person plural $-\bar{a}tis$ regularly gave $-atz: am\bar{a}tis > amatz, audiatis > auiatz. The regular form from <math>-\bar{e}tis$ is -etz, which we find kept in the future (veiretz) and in the present subjunctive (cantetz); in the present indicative it was replaced by -etz, probably through the analogy of $etz < \bar{e}stis: hab\bar{e}tis > avetz avetz, * potetis > podetz podetz, so sezetz, valetz, etc.; the rare avetz and podetz are the only forms that preserve e. The ending <math>-itis$, taking the accent on its penult (cf. § 167), became *-etz, then -etz: creditis > crezetz. This -etz also displaced the -itz that would have been regular in the fourth conjugation: partitis > partetz.

The final -tz was reduced, in some of the principal dialects, to -s (§ 64): cantás, sezes, partes. In other dialects it was replaced very early by -t (§ 64): auiát, avet, passát, podet; so partiret, etc.

1. In faitz < facitis the old accentuation apparently survives.

169. In the third person plural -ant, -ent, -unt gave respectively -an -ant, -en, -on -o (§ 83, Nt): amant > amant > amant amant, <math>audiant > auaint; valent > valent > valent > ament > ament; <math>vendon vendo. In Languedoc -an was replaced by -on or -o in the 13th century; in other regions, later: amon, chanto ls, coménso l. The *Boeci* has -en for -an: amen, monten. In Gascony and some of the Limousin territory -en partially displaced -on (florissen, parten, venden), elsewhere -on or -o displaced -en (valon).

IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

170. In the first conjugation -abam regularly gave -ava. In the second, through the analogy of $a\beta \acute{e}a < hab \bar{c}bam$ (§ 153), $-\bar{c}bam$ came to be replaced, in southern Gaul, by $-\acute{e}a$, which regularly changed to $-\acute{e}a$ (§ 26). In the third, $-i\bar{c}bam$ regularly became $-\bar{e}bam$ (§ 40, 1); and this and original $-\bar{e}bam$ were replaced by the $-\acute{e}a > -\acute{a}a$ of the second conjugation. In the fourth, $-\bar{i}bam$, which had in the accented syllable the characteristic vowel of the conjugation, crowded out $-i\bar{e}bam$; $-\bar{i}bam$ then lost its β through the analogy of the second and third conjugations. We have, then, in Provençal, only two sets of endings: $-\acute{a}va$, etc., in the first conjugation; $-\acute{i}a$, etc., in the second, third, and fourth.

amáva	vezía	fazía	partía
amávas	vezías	fazías	partías
amáva	vezía	fazía	partía
amavám	veziám	faziám	partiám
amavátz	veziátz	faziátz	partiátz
amávan	vezían	fazían	partían

I. In poetry ia is sometimes counted as one syllable: avian, devian.

2. For some subsequent developments of western dialects, see Meyer-Lübke, Gram., II, p. 326.

3. For the personal endings, see §§ 164-169.

4. Esser has: era, eras, era, erám, erátz erás, eran eron ero.

PRETERIT, OLD CONDITIONAL, AND IMPERFECT SUBJUNCTIVE.

171. These parts are all formed from the same stem, that of the Latin perfect: cf. § 141, (2). Ex.: cantex, cantera, cantes; vendei, vendera, vendes; partí, partíra, partís; vi, vira, vis; dec, degra, degues.

PRETERIT.

172. Preterits which stress the ending throughout are called *weak*; those which do not stress the ending throughout are called *strong*: partí, partist, partí, partím, partítz, partíron is weak; saup, saubíst, saup, saubém, saubétz, sáubron is strong. Verbs of the first and fourth conjugations regularly

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have weak preterits (amei, finí). Verbs of the second and third, with very few exceptions, originally had strong preterits ($placu\bar{i} > plac$, $f\bar{e}c\bar{i} > fis$): many of them, however, developed weak preterits either in Vulgar Latin or in Provençal (irasquei, nasquei, tessei tesquei, visquei); some assumed a weak form in -1 in the 1st pers. sg. (dis dissí, pris prenguí, remas remanguí, trais traguí: cf. §§ 173, 177); querre, on the other hand, substituted a strong preterit (quis, etc.) for a weak one.

173. (1) Final $-\bar{i}$, in the first pers. sg., doubtless remained through the earlier stages of Provençal ($habu\bar{i} > \dot{a}gui$, $d\bar{i}x\bar{i} >$ díssi): cf. § 51, (2). Before it fell, it changed an accented e in the preceding syllable to i ($v\bar{e}n\bar{i} * v\bar{e}nu\bar{i} > *$ vengui vinc): cf. § 27; occasionally, however, the e was kept, through the analogy of the other persons (pris pres). Sometimes, instead of falling, the -i took the accent (following the analogy of the fourth conjugation) and remained: $\dot{a}gui > ac$ or agui, $d\dot{s}si >$ dis or dissí (cf. § 177).

When the -i was immediately preceded by an accented vowel, it regularly formed a diphthong with that vowel, and did not fall $(fu\bar{\imath} > f\ddot{u}i)$: cf. § 51, (3); but -fi was simplified to -i $(part\bar{\imath}v\bar{\imath} part\bar{\imath}i)$ part().

Before enclitic l, -ei -iei were often reduced to -e -ie: cantie l.

(2) In the 2d pers. sg., $-st\bar{i}$ became -st, a preceding e being changed to i (\$ 27): $partist\bar{i} > partist$, $debuist\bar{i} > deguist$; sometimes, through the analogy of the 2d pers. pl., e remains (venguest: cf. \$ 27, 2). Occasionally the final -t disappears: aniest anies, fezist fezis.

(3) The -t of the 3d pers. sg. was lost in strong preterits: placuit>plac, vidit>vi. In weak preterits, it was retained

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by most dialects after é, and by many after í: donet done, vendet vende; partí partít. Cf. § 82, T.

(4) In the 1st pers. pl., -mus - mu' (see § 167) was reduced to $-m: v\bar{i}d\bar{i}mu' > vim$.

(5) The *-stis* of the 2d pers. pl. regularly became -tz (§ 78, 2), later in many dialects -s (§ 64): *debuistis* > deguetz degues.

(6) The *-runt* of the 3d pers. pl. regularly gave -ron or -ro (§ 83, Nt): *partīrunt* > partíron partíro, *vīděrunt* > viron viro. In some dialects -en is substituted for -on: *fŭěrunt* > foron foren (cf. § 169).

The *e* before *-runt*, which in classic Latin was usually long, was always short in Vulgar Latin when it was preserved at all: *amavěrunt* > *amārunt*, *fēcěrunt*.

WEAK PRETERITS.

174. (1) In the first and fourth conjugations we find in Latin the following endings:-

-āvī -āī	-āvīmus	-ivi -ii	–īvimus
-āvistī-āstī	–āvistis –āstis	-īvistī -īstī	–īvistis –īstis
-āvit -aut	-āvēre -āvērunt -ārunt	-īvit -īit -īt	-īvēre -īvērunt -īrunt

The popular speech preferred in every case the shortened form, and generally reduced $-\bar{a}v\bar{v}mus$, $-\bar{i}v\bar{v}mus$ to $-\bar{a}mus$, $-\bar{i}mus$ (in southern Gaul $-\bar{a}mu'$, $-\bar{i}mu'$: § 167), on the analogy of the 2d pers. sg. and pl.

(2) In the second conjugation a few verbs (delēre, flēre, nēre, olēre, -plēre, viēre) had similar endings (delēvī, etc.), which were doubtless contracted in like fashion in so far as these words were in common use. Most verbs of this conjugation, however, had strong preterits (tacēre, tacuī; vidēre, vīdī; etc.).

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PROVENÇAL MORPHOLOGY.

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(3) The third conjugation had in classic Latin no weak endings corresponding to those of the first, second, and fourth; but the vulgar speech developed a set in the following manner. Compounds of *dare* formed their perfect in $-did\bar{i}$ (*perdidī*); this $-did\bar{i}$, in accordance with the principle set forth in § 16, 3, came to be pronounced -dedi (*condedi*); and -dedi, probably through dissimilation¹, was shortened to -dei (**credéi*). With this form as a starting-point, a weak preterit was created on the analogy of those of the other conjugations, the endings being something like -ei, esti, -et, -emus -emu', -estis, -erunt. This inflection was probably extended to some verbs outside the -dere class (**battéi*, etc.?).

175. (1) In Provençal the weak inflection disappeared from the second conjugation, $del\bar{e}re$ and $-p\bar{l}\bar{e}re$ passing into the fourth, and the other weak verbs going out of use.

(2) Verbs of the fourth conjugation (except venir) all took the weak endings -i, -ist, -i, -im, -itz, -iron: partí, partíst, partí, partím, partítz, partíron. Irregular verbs either disappeared or became regular (*sensī* = sentí), with the exception of *venīre* > venir (vinc).²

(3) The new weak endings of the third conjugation developed into -ei, -est, -et, -ém, -etz, -eron: vendei, vendest, vendet, vendém, vendetz, venderon. In the 1st pers. sg. the e often broke (vendiei), and the diphthong was sometimes carried into the 2d pers. sg. (vendiest). These endings were considerably extended in Provençal (cazet, etc.), and were occasionally attached to a strong preterit stem (nasquet, tesquet, venquet, visquet). Most verbs, however, kept their

¹ Cf. the reduction of *habēbam* to $a\beta ea$: § 153.

² Tenér tenír really belongs to the second conjugation.

strong preterit (mis, conoc). The -ivi perfect disappeared from the third conjugation: quasivit > *quasit > ques.

(4) The first conjugation discarded its own weak endings, and substituted those of the third: cantei cantie, cantest cantiest, cantet, cantém, cantetz, canteron. This strange phenomenon seems to have originated as follows: *dare*, $d\breve{e}d\bar{\imath} >$ dar, dei; from dar the ending –ei was readily extended to estar (estei); and from these two very common verbs it spread to the whole first conjugation.

Irregular verbs (except *dare*, *stare*) either disappeared or became regular.

I. According to Meyer-Lübke, *Gram.*, II, p. 304, Latin -ai became by phonetic process -ei in Vulgar Latin, and -ei or -iei in Provençal. There seems to be no evidence to support this theory. Cf. § 23, 2.

2. In the dialects of Béarn and Catalonia the original a remains in some parts of the preterit.

176. A final -c, which developed in the strong -ui preterits (§ 184), often became attached to the 3d pers. sg. of weak preterits of the fourth conjugation: floríc, fugíc, iauzíc, partíc.¹ It was sometimes extended to other weak preterits: chantec, entendec, nasquec,² parec.³ We find also a 3d pers. pl. cazegron, etc., and even a 1st pers. sg. ameguí, etc. In some western dialects the final -c was adopted by the whole first conjugation: donec, portec, etc.

177. Some strong preterits occasionally assumed weak endings:-

(1) In the 1st pers. sg. several verbs in -s sometimes either added an -i or shifted the stress to an originally unaccented

¹According to Raimon Vidal, this is the regular ending of the 3d pers. sg. of the fourth conjugation.

² In *nasquee* the *ui* ending occurs twice.

³ Beside parec, coming perhaps from a V. L. * parevit * parevuit.

final -i (cf. §§ 172, 173): dis dissí, pris presí, quis quesí, respos respozí. A few verbs in -c did the same: aic aiguí, bec beguí, conoc conoguí, saup saubí, vinc venguí, volc volguí. An ending -guí being thus established, this syllable was sometimes added to preterits not of the -c class: costrenguí, destrenguí, prenguí, remanguí, restrenguí, traguí.

(2) In the 3d pers. sg. weak endings are rare: ac aguet, venc venguet.

(3) In the 3d pers. pl. the weak ending is not uncommon in -s preterits: diron disseron, düistrent düisseron, mesdren mezeron, preson preseron, remastrent remazeron, traisseron. We probably have to deal here, as in (1), with a shift of accent— $d\bar{i}x\bar{i}runt$ >*dísseron>disseron, etc.: see § 49, (2). The same thing may be true of such a form as agueron, beside ágron, from *á β werunt = habuěrunt; such a form as visqueron, on the other hand, is doubtless imitative.

STRONG PRETERITS.

178. (1) The reduplicative perfects were discarded in Vulgar Latin, with the exception of $d\check{e}di$ (and its compounds) and *stěti*, whose reduplicative character was no longer apparent. Cecădā became *cadui or *cadéi; the rest either disappeared or passed into the $-s\bar{s}$ class: cuc $\check{u}rr\bar{s} > \check{c}\check{u}rs\bar{s}$, mom $\check{o}rd\bar{a} > \check{m}\check{o}rs\bar{s}$, $pep\check{e}nd\bar{s} > \check{p}\bar{e}(n)s\bar{s}$, $pup\check{u}g\bar{s} > \check{p}puns\bar{s}$, $tet\check{e}nd\bar{s} > \check{t}\bar{e}(n)s\bar{s}$, $tet\check{e}g\bar{s} > \check{t}tax\bar{s}$

(2) The -i perfects were greatly reduced in number in Vulgar Latin. Some disappeared $(\bar{e}g\bar{\imath})$, some became weak $(f\bar{u}g\bar{\imath} > fug\bar{\imath} > fug\bar{\imath} > fug\bar{\imath})$; others passed into the $-s\bar{\imath}$ or the $-u\bar{\imath}$ class: $preh\bar{e}nd\bar{\imath} > pre\bar{i}(n)s\bar{\imath} > pris$; $b\bar{\imath}bit > b\bar{\imath}buit > bec, venit >$ *venuit > venc. In Provençal only three $-\bar{\imath}$ verbs remained: $f\bar{e}c\bar{\imath} > fis$, $fu\bar{\imath} > fui$, $v\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath} > vi$.

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(3) Of the $-s\bar{s}$ class (including $-ss\bar{s}$ and $-x\bar{s}$) over twenty verbs were preserved in Vulgar Latin ($d\bar{s}x\bar{s}$, $exc\bar{u}ss\bar{s}$, $m\bar{s}s\bar{s}$, $trax\bar{s}$, etc.), and about the same number passed into this class from others ($absco(n)s\bar{s}$, $*frax\bar{s}$, $s\bar{u}rs\bar{s}$, etc.): cf. (1) and (2) above. In Provençal nearly half the verbs of the second and third conjugations have $-s\bar{s}$ preterits: $rema(n)s\bar{s}$ > remas, $*re-sp\bar{o}(n)s\bar{s}$ > respos¹.

(4) The $-u\bar{i}$ class held its own very well in Vulgar Latin (*placuī*, etc.) and received some additions (*natus sum* > **nacuī*, sustūlī > *tŏluī, vēnī > *vēnuī, vīcī > *vincuī, vīxī > *vīscuī, etc.)². To this class belonged, in Vulgar Latin (and, according to Meyer-Lübke³, in classic Latin also), all perfects in $-v\bar{i}$, this ending being pronounced -wuĭ, later -wwi or $-\betawi: cognōvī > *conōvuī > conoc, crēvit > *crēvuit > crec, mō-$ <math>vī > *mŏvuī > moc. Cf. § 148. In Provençal not far from half the verbs of the second and third conjugations have $-u\bar{i}$ preterits. For a combination af a $-c < -u\bar{i}$ stem with a weak ending, see § 175, (3). For the extension of $-c < -u\bar{i}$ to other conjugations, see § 176.

179. In the 1st pers. pl. the accent was shifted to the ending, to make this form correspond to the 2d pers. sg. and pl.: $f\bar{e}c\bar{i}mus > *f\bar{e}c\bar{i}mu' > fezem (cf. fecist\bar{i} > fezist, fecistis >$ $fezetz), * <math>pr\bar{e}(n)s\bar{i}mus > *pres\bar{i}mu' > prezem, debuimus > de$ etawmu' > deguem. Exceptions are fumus > fom, vidimus >

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¹All verbs in $-nd\check{e}re$ took the perfect in $-s\bar{i}$: ascos, aucis, pris, respos, etc. Lěgěre took * $l\check{e}x\bar{i} > leis$ through the analogy of the p. p. $l\check{e}ctum$. So fingěre took * $fix\bar{i} > feis$ through fictum; frangěre, pingěre, tangěre did likewise (frais, peis, tais); and in Provençal cénher $< c\check{i}ng\check{e}re$, esténher < exstinguière, planher < plangěre followed the example of these (ceis, esteis, plais): hence all verbs in -nher have the preterit in -s.

² See Zs., XXVIII, 97.

⁸ Gram., II, p. 357.

vim; in these verbs the 2d pers. forms also are monosyllabic (füst, fotz; vist, vitz).

180. We find in some verbs an irregular 3d pers. pl. without -r-, made by adding -on or -en to the 3d pers. sg., the final consonant of which is voiced in all verbs in which it is voiced in the other persons of the plural: (aucire) aucis, aucíson; (plánher) plais, pláisson; (prenre) pres, preson; (remanre) remas, remáson; (venir) venc, venguen; (voler) volc, volgon.

I. Prenre has preiron (beside preson preseron), probably through the analogy of *feiron* < *fēcērunt*. Mairon, from maner, is perhaps to be explained in the same way.

181. (1) Through the change of -e- to -i- by the influence of a final -i, as described in § 173, (1), a distinction was established between the first and the third person singular of some preterits: crēvi> cric, crēvit> crec; fēci> fis, fēcit> fes; $*pr\bar{e}(n)s\bar{i}$ pris, $*pr\bar{e}(n)sit$ pres; $t\bar{e}nu\bar{i} * t\bar{e}nu\bar{i}^1$ tinc, těnuit * tēnuit > tenc; vēnī * vēnuī¹ > vinc, vēnit * vēnuit > Metre, also, has mis, mes, which may come from venc. *missi *missit (cf. missum) = misi, misit; or perhaps mis comes from *mīsī* and mes is analogical. Through the analogy of such forms, querre has quis, ques. In the preterit of poder, both potui and potuit would regularly have given poc puoc puec (§ 37), but poc was kept for the 3d person, and puoc puec was used for the 1st. The preterit of voler differentiates the two persons similarly - vuelc, volc; here the diphthong (perhaps under the influence of puec) is borrowed from the present, where we have * voleo > vuelh, * volet > vol (§ 37). Aver, likewise, borrows a distinction from the present: aic, ac reproduce the vowels of ai, a; aic + aguí > aiguí.

¹ $T \check{e} n u \bar{i}$ and $v \bar{e} n \bar{i}$ influenced each other.

(2) For -1 as a characteristic of the first person, see § 177, (1).

(3) For -c as a distinctive mark of the third person, see § 176.

182. The three -i perfects developed in Provençal as follows: --

(1) Facere>faire (*fare>far) has:

$f\bar{e}c\bar{i}$ > fis, fezí	fēcīmus *fēcīmu'	> fezem
fēcistī > fezist fezis	fēcīstis	>fezetz fezes
fēcit > fetz fes	fēcěrunt	> feiron feiro

I. We do not find, in the 1st pers. sg., as we should expect (§ 65, C'), fitz beside fis; doubtless the form came early under the influence of mis, pris, quis, etc. For fezi, see § 177, (I). There is also a form fi, due, perhaps, to the analogy of $vi < v\bar{v}\bar{d}\bar{a}$; corresponding to fi are 3d pers. sg. fe, and pl. fem, fes, feron. A rare figut is evidently made on the model of aigut, etc. In the 3d pers. sg. we find also fei, which seems to be patterned after feiron or after the present fai.

(2) Esse (>* $\check{e}ss\check{e}re$ > esser estre) had originally a long uin the perfect. In literary Latin the u was shortened, but the popular speech seems to have kept \bar{u} beside \check{u} . The Provençal 1st and 2d pers. sg. apparently come from $f\bar{u}\bar{i}$, $*f\bar{u}st\bar{i} = fu\check{i}st\bar{i}$ (although Pr. füi might be taken from $f\check{u}\bar{i}$), while the other forms presuppose \check{u} :

fūī	> füi	fŭĭmus *fŭmu'	> fọm
fūĭstī	* <i>fūstī</i> >füst füs	fŭĭstis * fŭstis	>fotz fos
fŭit	> fọ, fọn, fọnc	fŭěrunt * fŭrunt	>foron foro, foren

I. A rare fo in the 1st pers. sg. seems to be simply borrowed from the 3d. In the 3d pers. sg., fon beside fo is due to the analogy of -on -oin the 3d pers. pl., and, in general, of such double forms as bon bo, mon mo, son so, ton to: cf. § 63, (5). Fonc shows the influence of tenc, venc.

(3) Videre > vezer has:

vīdī	>*viði *við vi, vic	vīdimus *vīdimu'	>*viðmu*viim vim
vīdžstī	>vist vis	vīdistis	> vitz vis
vīdit	>*við vi, vit, vic	vīděrunt	>*viðrun viron viro

I. The 1st pers. sg. vic is patterned upon $aic < habu\bar{i}$, $cric < cr\bar{c}vi$, etc. The 2d pers. forms are irregular, as we should expect *vezist, *vezetz: evidently the 2d pers. followed the analogy of the 1st and 3d. In the 3d pers. sg., vit and vic follow the model of partit, partic, etc.: see § 173, (3), and § 176.

183. In the -sī perfect the 3d pers. pl. presented difficulties. If the -e- of the penult fell, an s or z and an r were brought together. Most dialects apparently preserved the -e-, and shifted the accent to it (aucizeron, condüisseron, disseron, prezeron, remazeron, traisseron), or else borrowed outright the weak ending (responderon): cf. § 49, (2), and § 177, (3). Dialects which lost the -e- too early to follow this method, generally suppressed the sibilant (aucíron, diron, meron from metre, remáron), or omitted the -r- and formed the 3d pers. pl. directly from the 3d pers. sg. (aucízon, pláisson, prezon, remázon: § 180), or else imitated a preterit of another class (mairon from maner, preiron from prenre, doubtless patterned after feiron < fecerunt); some borderland dialects kept the sibilant and the r, and developed a dental between them (düystrent < dūxěrunt, mesdren < mīsěrunt + * mĭssěrunt: § 70, Sr. Zr).

As examples of the $-s\bar{i}$ perfect we may take the preterit of dire $< d\bar{i}c\bar{e}re$ and penre prenre $< pr(eh)\bar{e}nd\bar{e}re$: —

(1)	dīxī	> dis, dissí	dīximus * dīximu'> dissem
	dīxĭstī	> dissíst	$d\bar{i}x\bar{i}stis$ > dissetz disses
	dīxit	> dis	$d\bar{i}x\check{e}runt > disseron, diron diro$
(2)	* prē(n)sī	> pris, pres, presí	* prē(n)simus * prēsimu' > presem
	* pre(n)sis	$t\bar{t}$ > presist	* $pr\bar{e}(n)$ sistis > presetz preses
	* prē(n)si	t > pres	* prē(n)sěrunt > preseron, preson,
			[preiron

(3) Escriure < scriběre has, beside escris < scripsi, a preterit escrius (cf. p. p. escriut escrit escrich), in which the u is probably due to the influence of the infinitive. (4) For dissí, presí, quesí, respozí, see § 177, (1). For pris pres, etc., see § 173, (1).

184. In the $-u\bar{i}$ perfect the development depends somewhat upon the consonant preceding the *u*. The treatment of the various cons. + w groups, which was discussed in § 72, may be illustrated by $habuit > ac^1$, $cr\bar{e}vit * cr\bar{e}vuit > crec^2$; $n\bar{o}cuit$ > noc^3 ; $s\bar{e}dit * s\bar{e}duit > sec$, $p\bar{o}tuit > poc$; $valuit > valc^4$, $t\bar{e}$ nuit * $t\bar{e}nuit > tenc^5$, $m\bar{e}ruit > merc$; $sapuit > saup^6$: the noteworthy features are the change of *u* to -c (through w, gw, g), the absorption of the preceding consonant unless it be a liquid, a nasal, or a *p*, the preservation of the liquid or nasal, and the metathesis of the *p*.

Aver $< hab \bar{e}re$, poder $posse, voler <math>< v \delta l \bar{e}re$ v $\bar{e}lle$, saber $< sap \bar{e}re$ sap $\bar{e}re$ will serve as examples (for the accentuation of the 3d pers. pl., see § 16, 2): —

 (1) habuī > ac, aguí, aic, aiguí habuĭmus *aβwĭmu' > aguem habuĭstī > aguíst habuĭstis > aguetz agues habuit > ac habučrunt > ágron ágro, agueron

I. For aguí (beguí, conoguí), see § 177, (1). For aic, aiguí, (cric), see § 181, (1). For agueron (visqueron), see § 177, (3).

(2) potuī	>pộc puộc puệc	potuĭmus	* potwimu' > poguem
potuĭstī	> poguíst	potužstis	> poguetz pogues
pŏtuit	> pộc, pột	potuěrunt	> pogron pogro

1. For *puoc*, see § 181, (1). *Pot* is apparently due to the combined influence of weak preterits and the parts of *poder* in which the dental is preserved.

¹So bibuit > bec, debuit > dec.

² So cognovit > conoc, movit > moc.

So * cocuit > coc, jacuit > iac, * nascuit > nasc, * pa(s)cuit > pac, placuit > plac, tacuit > tac, * tescuit > tesc, * vincuit > venc, * viscuit > visc.

^{*}So caluit > calc, * toluit > tolc, voluit > volc.

⁵ So * vēnuit > venc.

So eripuit > ereup, recipuit > receup.

(3)	ขอในเ	>volc, vuelc, volguí	voluimus *volwimu' > volguem
	voluĭstī	> volguíst	voluistis > volguetz volgues
	voluit	> volc	voluërunt > volgron volgro
I.	For vuel	c (tinc, vinc), see § 181,	(I); for volguí (venguí), § 177, (I).

 (4) sapuī
 > saup, saubí
 sapuīmus * sapuīmu' > saubēm

 sapuīstī
 > saubist
 sapuīstis > saubētz saubēs

 sapuit
 > saup
 sapučrunt > sáubron sáubron, sáupron

1. For saubí, see § 177, (1). For sáupron (sáupra, saupés, saupút), see § 65, P, 3; cf. § 148, (2).

OLD CONDITIONAL.

185. The old conditional came from the Latin pluperfect indicative, which had been supplanted in its pluperfect sense by a compound form, and was gradually restricted in its use to the functions of a preterit, a perfect conditional, and a simple conditional: see § 141, (2). In Provençal it had only the conditional meaning; and as the new conditional rendered it superfluous, it fell into disuse (with the exception of ágra and fora) in the 13th and 14th centuries: see § 142, (2).

186. In the fourth conjugation the old conditional comes from the contracted form of the pluperfect ($aud\bar{i}ram < aud\bar{i}$ $v\check{e}ram$). Weak verbs of the third conjugation constructed a similar form (*venderam). First conjugation verbs started with the contracted pluperfect ($am\bar{a}ram < am\bar{a}v\check{e}ram$), but in Provençal substituted e for á, as in the preterit: § 175, (4). The Provençal types of the old conditional of weak verbs are, therefore, represented by: amera, vendera, auzíra. The inflection is as follows: —

amera	amerám	auzíra	auzirám
ameras	amerátz	auzíras	auzirátz
amera	amęran	auzíra	auzíran

187. Strong verbs of the -i and the -ui classes regularly

took their old conditional directly from the Latin pluperfect: $fectram > feira, futeram > fora, videram > vira; habuteram * a \beta$ weram (§ 16, 2) > agra, potuteram > pogra, voluteram > volgra,saputeram > saubra saupra (§ 65, P, 3). Of course the Latinpluperfect, and therefore the Provençal conditional, followedthe shift of the perfect if it changed from one class to another: venī > *venuī, hence *venuteram > vengra. The inflection is as follows: —

fora	forám	ágra	agrám
foras	forátz forás	ágras	agrátz agrás
fora	foran	ágra	ágran

I. Faire has féra (cf. feron) beside féira.

2. For sáupra, cf. §148, (2), and § 184, (4), 1, and § 192.

3. Devér has beside dégra a form déura, evidently influenced by the new conditional, deurfa.

4. Páisser, plazér have beside págra, plágra the forms paisséra, plazéra.

188. Strong verbs of the $-s\bar{s}$ class regularly form their old conditional on the same plan as the 3d pers. pl. of the preterit (§ 183): $(d\bar{s}x\bar{e}ram)$ díra, cf. díron; $(*pr\bar{e}s\bar{e}ram)$ preira, cf. preiron; $(ars\bar{e}ram)$ arsera, cf. arseron.

189. It will be noted that in all verbs, weak and strong, the old conditional may be constructed from the 3d pers. pl. of the preterit by changing -on to -a.

IMPERFECT SUBJUNCTIVE.

190. The Provençal imperfect subjunctive came from the Latin pluperfect subjunctive, which in Vulgar Latin assumed the functions of the imperfect and generally displaced it, its own place having been taken by a compound form: see § 141, (2).

191. For weak verbs the basis was the contracted form of the first and fourth conjugations $(am\bar{a}ssem < am\bar{a}v\bar{i}ssem, aud\bar{i}ssem < aud\bar{i}v\bar{i}ssem)$; weak verbs of third conjugation had a similar analogical form (*vendessem). First conjugation verbs substituted e for á, as in the perfect and the old conditional: § 175, (4); § 186. The Provençal types are: ames, vendes, auzís. The inflection is:

amęs	amessem	auzís	auzissem
amęsses	amessetz -es	auzísses	auzissetz -es
amęs	amęssen –on –o	auzís	auzíssen –on –o

192. Strong verbs regularly made their imperfect directly from the Vulgar Latin form of the pluperfect: fecissem > fezes, füissem *füssem > fos, vidissem > vezes, venissem * venuissem > vengues; dixissem > disses, * pre(n) sissem > prezes; habuissem > agues, potuissem > pogues, voluissem > volgues, sapuissem > saubes saupes (§ 65, P, 3). The inflection is: —

fọs	fossem	agues	aguessem, acsem
fosses	fossetz -es	aguesses	aguessetz -es, acsetz -es
fos	fossen on o	agues	aguessen -on -o

1. The syncopated forms in the 1st and 2d pers. pl. are common to the -uī class: decsém, iacsém, pocsém, saupsém.

2. In the 3d pers. pl. -an sometimes takes the place of -en or -on: mezéssan, saubéssan. This ending is doubtless borrowed from the present subjunctive and the old conditional.

3. Vezér has vis beside vezés. From faire we find in the 3d pers. pl. fésson.

4. Metre has mezés, due, no doubt, to the analogy of mes and of prezés.

193. Some dialects have an ending -a, -as, -a, -ám, -átz, an, borrowed from the present subjunctive and the old conditional, but added to the stem of the imperfect subjunctive: chantessa, vendessa, floríssa; fossa.

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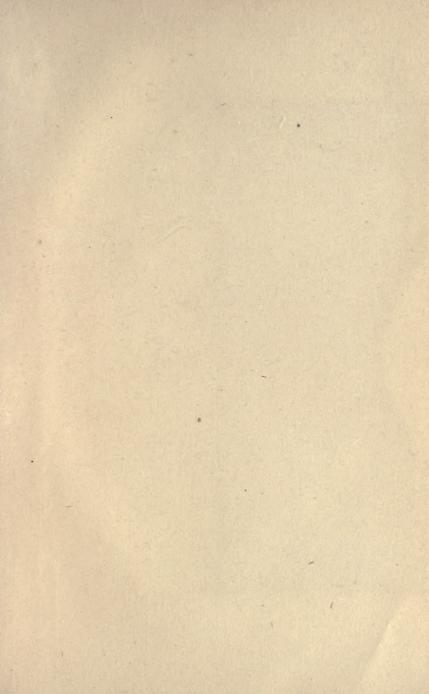
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